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Author of "A History of the British Empire", "Outlines of the World's History", &c.

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CONTENTS.

BRITONS AND ROMANS, - - - - -	5
BRITAIN BECOMES ENGLAND, - - - - -	10
ENGLAND BEFORE THE NORMAN CONQUEST, - - -	13
THE NORMAN CONQUEST, - - - - -	23
NORMAN ENGLAND, - - - - -	35
THE GREAT CHARTER, - - - - -	50
RISE OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS, - - - - -	53
EDWARD THE FIRST, - - - - -	68
THE END OF EDWARD THE FIRST.—EDWARD THE SECOND,	80
THE RISE OF THE PEOPLE, - - - - -	84
JOHN WYCLIF, - - - - -	87
GEOFFREY CHAUCER, - - - - -	90
THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR, - - - - -	97
THE FIGHT FOR THE CROWN, - - - - -	115
THE TUDOR SOVEREIGNS, - - - - -	128
HENRY THE EIGHTH, - - - - -	132
Cardinal Wolsey, - - - - -	132
Sir Thomas More, - - - - -	144
END OF HENRY THE EIGHTH —EDWARD THE SIXTH.—	
QUEEN MARY THE FIRST,	154
QUEEN ELIZABETH, - - - - -	158
Sir Francis Drake, - - - - -	180
Mary Queen of Scots, - - - - -	187
The Armada, - - - - -	194
THE CONQUEST OF IRELAND, - - - - -	204
SIR WALTER RALEIGH, - - - - -	210
Summary, - - - - -	217
Genealogical Tables, - - - - -	242
Principal Dates, - - - - -	247
Explanations of the more difficult Words and Phrases, - - - - -	250

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

FROM EARLY TIMES TO 1603

BRITONS AND ROMANS

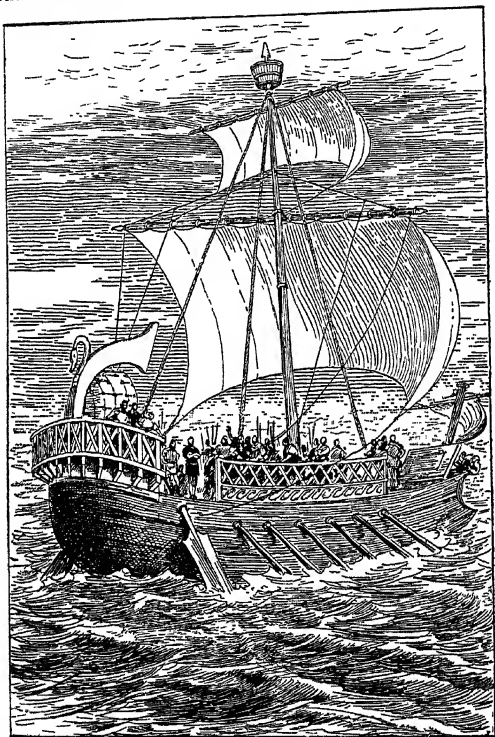
(B.C. 55 to A.D. 450.)

Our earliest trustworthy account of any events which took place in the British Isles was written by the great Roman general and statesman, Julius Caesar. On a day towards the end of the month of August, in the year 55 B.C., a person looking from the coast north of Dover Strait would have seen a large fleet of war-galleys, and many ships of burden, making their way across the narrow sea from the country then called Gaul or Gallia, now known as France.

This fleet was bringing Roman soldiers, with Caesar, the governor of Gaul, at their head, to punish the Britons for sending ships and men to help one of the Gallic tribes then at war with the Romans. Large numbers of the men of the country now called Kent were gathered on the open beach near Deal, armed with darts and spears. Some of them rode in chariots carrying short, sharp, iron scythes on the axles of the wheels and the ends of the poles.

The Roman troops, brave as they were, and the most famous in the world for discipline and skill, seemed at first unwilling to make an attack on the fierce-looking

foes who stood uttering shouts of defiance. Then the standard-bearer of the Tenth Legion, the finest men of



A Roman Galley

Caesar's army in Gaul, leaped over the galley-side into the sea, holding up the pole with its silver eagle atop,

and crying, "Follow me, men of the Tenth, unless you wish to see your eagle in the hands of the enemy!"

The very thought of such a disgrace was enough, and the soldiers poured forth from all the galleys. After a fierce fight, in which the Roman javelins and short, sharp-pointed, two-edged swords did much damage in the British ranks, the defenders of the soil were driven off inland. In an attack which they made on the Roman camp, a few miles inland, the Britons were again defeated. The Romans on this occasion remained only seventeen days. After repairing their ships, which had been greatly damaged by a storm as they lay off the shore, they returned to Gaul.

Early in the following year, B.C. 54, Caesar came again with a much larger force, and, in the course of a few weeks, did much fighting south and north of the Thames. This ended with the defeat of a great chief named Casswallon, and the taking of his strong post or fortress at Verulam, near the place now called St Albans, in Hertfordshire. The Roman leader was called back to Gaul by other events, and the Romans came no more as invaders for nearly a hundred years.

During that time the people of the southern parts of the island carried on trade: exchanging blocks of lead and tin for brass, pottery, and salt with merchants from Gaul, and exporting slaves and skins, hunting-dogs, and the oysters which were then much liked by the rich people of Rome. Much of the country was then covered by forest and marsh, where skin-clad men hunted the deer and the wolf, the bear and the wild boar. It was only in the more civilized south-eastern districts that there was much tilling of the soil for the growth of corn.

The Britons were of the Celtic race, and spoke a language much like that now used in Wales. The religion was a form of worship called Druidism, the priests or Druids being also the judges of the people in matters

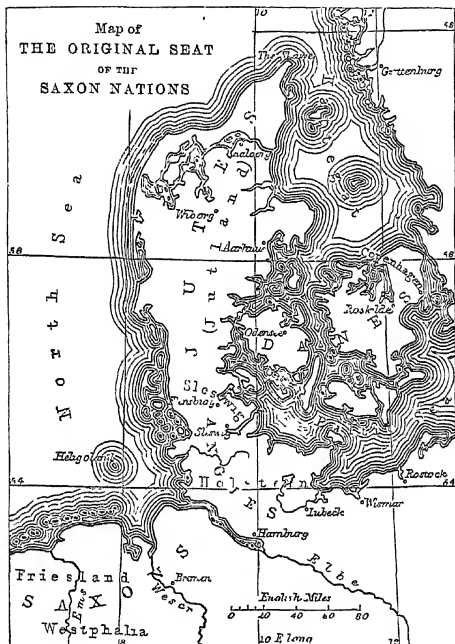


of dispute or crime. There were many different tribes, each with its own chieftain or petty king. A class of men called Bards gave pleasure to a music-loving race by singing, to the notes of a rude harp, the praises of chiefs and their forefathers, the wonders of nature, and the power of the gods.

Such were the people who were conquered by the

BRITONS AND ROMANS.

Romans in the last half of the first century after Christ. Between A.D. 43 and 84 the country was mastered by armies which overcame the most fierce and determined



resistance of the natives headed by brave and able leaders. In vain Caradoc, or Caractacus, as the Romans called him, stood at bay on a lofty hill in the country now named Shropshire. The invaders went down by

hundreds under British arrows, but the field was won at close quarters with the Roman sword. The famous queen Boadicea, too, defeated in heading a revolt in the south took poison and died

The Roman conquest was completed by a great and good man named Agricola, who made his way to the Grampian Hills, defeated the native warriors in a great battle, and for some years ruled with wisdom and justice the whole country now called England. Under Roman government the Britons became partly civilized. During their occupation of the country, which lasted over three hundred years, the Romans made roads, and built towns and *villas*, or country-houses, of which many remains are still to be seen.

BRITAIN BECOMES ENGLAND.

(450-600.)

The ancestors of the English race, and the founders of the English language, law, and freedom were three tribes called the Angles, or Engle, the Saxons, and the Jutes. The Jutes lived in that part of peninsular Denmark now called Jutland. The Saxons and the Angles inhabited the country to the south of Jutland, which now, under the name of Schleswig-Holstein, forms a part of the German Empire. They also dwelt in the region on the lower or seaward course of the rivers Elbe, Weser, and Ems. These German tribes were pagans or heathens in religion, worshipping gods and goddesses, some of whose names still appear in those of the days of the week.

Those Angles and Saxons who dwelt on the coast were

bold and hardy mariners, living by fishing and by piracy or sea-robbery. They went forth on the waters of what are now called the North Sea or German Ocean and the English Channel; they seized and plundered the trading-vessels which they met, or they landed on the coasts of Gaul and Britain and carried off people to sell as slaves, with cattle or any other booty on which they could lay their hands. The inland folk were farmers, living in little settlements called *townships*, from the *tun*, or hedge and ditch which guarded the place from those who dwelt outside.

These tillers of the soil, like their brethren on the sea-board, were of warlike spirit, ever ready for fight against foreign foes with swords and spears, bows and arrows, battle-axes and heavy clubs with iron spikes. The most important feature in their character was their strong love of freedom for themselves and for all their race. There were men of high birth, called *eorlas*, whence the present word "earls", and from these the mass of the people chose rulers for the time of peace and leaders in war. The main body of freemen consisted of the *ceorlas* or churls, meaning "the men", as opposed to slaves.

There was one practice of these men, our forefathers, which we must specially note. This was the custom of meeting from time to time, at what was called the *mote-hill* of the township, for the settlement of disputes, the rendering of justice, and the appointment of men to serve the little state in offices of peace and war. These meetings were a simple and early form of parliament, where self-government was carried on by the freemen in person instead of by men chosen to represent or to speak for them. The meeting was a kind of House of

Commons, and all the people readily submitted to its decisions.

During the last half of the fifth, and in the sixth century after the birth of Christ, these Angles, Saxons, and Jutes came across the seas and made themselves masters of the eastern part of the country from the Channel to the Forth, and called it *Engleland* or England, land of the English. In a series of struggles the Britons were either killed or taken to be sold as slaves, or driven off into what is now called Wales, or into the hilly region of the north-west forming north Lancashire, Westmorland, and Cumberland.

The Jutes were first in the field of conquest, and in a warfare of about twenty years, from 450 to 470, they overcame the people in the south-east and founded the kingdom of *Kent*. The Saxons came next, and by the year 490 they had founded a kingdom whose name remains in "Sussex" Before the end of that century another body of their warriors, under the leadership of Cerdic and his son Cynric, attacked the Britons of the southern coast, and by slow degrees won the land which became the kingdom of *Wessex*. This comprised the country now included in the counties of Dorsetshire and Wiltshire, and part of Hampshire, and extended northwards as far as the shores of the Thames.

The counties of Essex and Middlesex keep up the names of two other small kingdoms founded by our Saxon forefathers. The Angles made their way to the north, centre, and east of the country, and founded kingdoms known as *East Anglia*, now Norfolk, Suffolk, and adjacent parts of Huntingdon and Cambridge, *Mercia*, now the Midland counties; and *Northumbria*, stretching

from the Humber to the Forth. In all the region conquered and occupied by the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, the English language was introduced. The Christian religion, brought into Britain in the later time of the



Roman power, was almost swept away. The western side of the country alone,—namely, Cornwall and Devon, Wales, and the country between the Mersey and the Clyde,—was left in possession of the Britons.

ENGLAND BEFORE THE NORMAN CONQUEST.—I.

(600–832)

In the year 597, King Ethelbert of Kent received, at a meeting in the open air, some visitors from Rome, sent

over by Pope Gregory the Great. A body of about forty monks, headed by an abbot named Augustine, had landed in the Isle of Thanet, and came forward in a procession headed by men carrying a silver cross and a painted image of Christ. A litany was sung and prayers were offered for the success of the mission. Augustine made a speech to the king, extolling the goodness of the Christian faith, and asking him to become a convert to it.

Ethelbert, whose wife Bertha, a princess from Paris, was a Christian, replied that the words were good, but that he could not yet give up the faith of his fathers. He allowed the missionaries to preach to the people, and gave them a dwelling-place in his chief city, Canterbury, where they built a church. This church of wood was erected on the ground where the chief cathedral of England now stands. Thus was the Church founded in England, with Augustine as the first Archbishop of Canterbury. Within a year from the coming of the monks, Ethelbert and many of his people were baptized as Christians, and in course of time the Christian religion spread through the land.

With the introduction of Christianity, there was a general advance in civilization. The monks had brought with them a knowledge of Latin, and in that tongue a monk named Beda, "the venerable Bede", the father of English learning, and the first English writer of history, wrote an account of the nation from the years 597 to 731. This diligent, pious, and lowly-minded man lived in the monastery at Jarrow, on the south bank of the river Tyne, and died in 735, drawing his last breath a few minutes after he had dictated the last words of a translation of the Gospel of St. John.

Some of the clergy taught the people to build better houses, and to use glass for windows, while others gave them instruction in music. In the wilder parts of the country, settlements of monks led the way in clearing the forests and draining the marshes, and new towns rose around the religious houses. In the Fen country of eastern England, amid a wilderness of reeds and mist, where the only dwellers were wild ducks and moor-hens, the cathedral and abbey of Medeshamstead gathered round them the houses which became the city of Peterborough. The monks were also, in that time of general ignorance, the healers of the sick as well as the feeders of the destitute.

For more than two hundred years after the English conquest, there was much warfare among the different rulers, and from time to time Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex were more powerful than any of the other kingdoms. It was in 802 that Egbert, a descendant of Cerdic, came to the throne of Wessex. He had lived for thirteen years in exile at the court of a very famous and able man, Charles the Great, king of the Franks, and ruler of much of central and western Europe. From that great conqueror and governor of mankind, Egbert had learnt lessons both of war and peace.

He made himself master of both Mercia and Northumbria, after East Anglia and the southern kingdoms had yielded to his power. In 828 Egbert was acknowledged as "overlord" or supreme king of all the country from the Channel to the Forth, and he styled himself either "King of the West Saxons" or "King of the English" By this time, many of the Britons had become mixed with their English conquerors by marriage,

and there was a free British population as well as many slaves of that race.

In those times, ways of life were simple even among the noble and the rich, who lived on bread made from the flour of the wheat that grew on their own fields, on the flesh of their own herds of horned cattle, sheep, and swine, and on that of the deer and the wild boar killed in the chase. The work of the carpenter and smith was done by serfs or slaves who lived in huts near the house of their lord, and the clothing, except some silks and furs from foreign lands, was of wool shorn, spun, and woven on the estate. Rents for the land were not paid in money, but in fitches of bacon, fowls and geese, eggs and cheese, honey for sweetening at a time when sugar was unknown, fish, and casks of home-brewed ale.

ENGLAND BEFORE THE NORMAN CONQUEST.—II.

(832-901)

In the days of Egbert, the British Isles began to be troubled by the Danes, a race of fierce heathen pirates dwelling in the countries now called Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. In race and language they were much akin to the English. They came over in ships that bore the national flag—a black raven woven on a blood-red ground. So fearful were the strength and courage, the fierceness and cruelty of the Danes, that the dwellers on our coasts hurried inland at the sight of their vessels steering for the shore, and left their homes to be plundered of furniture and food.

In 851 these invaders wintered in the Isle of Thanet, and in 855 they passed their first winter in the Isle of Sheppey, safe within a fort which they built, where



A Viking Raud

Sheerness now stands, at the place where the Medway joins the Thames. From that time they came in greater numbers, and hosts of them settled in the country, which they found pleasant to live in after roaming the seas. Egbert and some of his successors fought the Danes with

courage and skill, but by the year 870 Northumbria, East Anglia, and Mercia, or most of England north of the Thames, had been conquered, and Wessex was in danger from the ever-advancing foe

Then arose a king, brave and good and truly wise, who brought peace to the sorely-stricken land, partly by showing his strength against the Danes, and partly by his prudence in sharing with them the country from which they could not now be driven. In 871 Alfred, justly styled "the Great", came to the throne of Wessex, left vacant by the death of his elder brother Ethelred. Born at Wantage, a little Berkshire town, in 849, he was now in his twenty-second year, and was married to a lady named Elswitha, of the royal house of Mercia.

Alfred had already helped to defeat the Danes in Wessex before he became king, and in 875 he won, in Swanage Bay on the Dorset coast, what is believed to be the first of our long and glorious roll of naval victories. Seven ships full of Danish invaders were beaten off, and one was captured. In the next year, Danes from East Anglia marched into Wessex, under their king Guthrum or Guthorm, and in the winter of 877 Alfred, in spite of all his efforts, was driven to seek safety amongst the woods and marshes in the south of Somerset.

In the early summer of 878, the king came forth from his little fortress, and put himself at the head of an army gathered for a great and last effort. The Danes were suddenly attacked at Ethandune in Wiltshire, utterly beaten in battles in the open country, and finally starved into surrender, when they had fled to their stronghold for refuge. Guthrum and many of his chief men were baptized as Christians, and by the Treaty of Wedmore, a

place in Somerset, the Danes were permitted to remain as independent dwellers in England, retaining their own laws and customs, and holding all the country on the east from the Thames to the Tweed, and far into the Midlands. Alfred, as King of Wessex, kept the south and west.



Alfred as a Young Man calls on the Saxon Chiefs to rise and repel the Danes

During fifteen years of peace, King Alfred made the noblest use of his time for the people's good. The ruined towns were rebuilt; the wasted lands were tilled again; a regular army and a strong fleet were provided, a new code of laws was drawn up, arts, manufactures, and learning were encouraged. He himself translated some good books from Latin into English, and had others translated by learned men; and it was he who started the famous English or Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, which gives a record of events from the coming of Caesar to the year 1154.

From 893 to 896 Alfred was busied in fighting new Danish invaders under a leader named Hasting. They were finally driven to their ships, and the new fleet of the king was strong enough to keep the coasts clear of the raven-flag for the rest of his reign. In 901, at the age of fifty-two, the king who delivered Wessex from the Danes died, and left to Englishmen for all coming time the brightest example of duty done in the fear of God and love of man.

ENGLAND BEFORE THE NORMAN CONQUEST—III.

(901-1066)

In the earlier year of the tenth century, Alfred's daughter Ethelfleda, the "Lady of Mercia", a brave and clever woman, did much to subdue the Danes in the east, and soon after her death in 920, her brother, Edward the Elder, the king of Wessex and Mercia, became master of East Anglia and Northumbria. His son and successor, Athelstan, was an able and vigorous ruler, defeating at Brunanburh, an unknown spot in the north of England, in 937, a great invading host of Danes, Scots, and other foes, and driving back the Britons or Welsh beyond the rivers Wye and Tamar. This grandson of Alfred brought the power and glory of England under native rulers to their highest point.

The greatest English statesman and churchman of this century was Saint Dunstan. He was skilled in all the learning and arts of his day—theology, philosophy, music, painting, carving, and working in metals. For thirty years, under successive kings, he was really the chief

ruler of the land, keeping strict order in church affairs, regulating weights, measures, coinage, and trade, enforcing law and order, and encouraging learning. On his retirement from power in 979, a weak and foolish king, Ethelred II, had much trouble with the Danes

In 982 London was taken and burnt; in 991 a body of Northmen landed in East Anglia. The king adopted the cowardly plan of paying the invaders a large sum in silver to stay away, with the result that they came again whenever they found themselves in want of money. At last, in 1002, when a new invasion was threatening, Ethelred in his rage ordered a general slaughter of Danes in Wessex. Many of them had intermarried with the English, and many others were in the king's service as soldiers. Some thousands of these people were slain in this sudden attack, which was to cause a change in the rulers of England

Among the victims was Gunhilda, a sister of Sweyn, king of Norway and Denmark. Before she received her own death-blow, she saw her husband, a Danish earl, and her little children, murdered before her face. With her dying words she warned her assassins that vengeance would soon come over the seas. Her brother Sweyn came in 1003 and stayed for four years, ravaging the land until he was bribed to return home. St. Alphege, Archbishop of Canterbury, a brave and loyal subject of the king, was murdered by the Danes at Greenwich, near London, and in 1013 Ethelred was driven in flight to Normandy, and Sweyn became king of England.

The death of Sweyn in 1014 left power in the hands of his son Cnut or Canute, who ruled in strength and wisdom from 1016 to 1035. During this time the Danes

became thoroughly settled in the country. Already akin to the English in blood and language, they became with them one united people, by intermarriage, by their adoption of the Christian religion, and by submission, in the same country, to one king and one law. The last Danish king died in 1042, and an English sovereign, of the line of Cerdic, Edward the Confessor, came to the throne. He was the second son of Ethelred and his second wife Emma, a princess of Normandy, a province in the north of France, which took its name from the Danes or Northmen, who had conquered it early in the tenth century.

These Normans had become the first people of their day, the best of all the northern race, and better than any nation then living, in all the arts of war and peace. Their arms were known in conquest from the Baltic Sea to the shores of the Mediterranean, where they mastered Sicily and the south of Italy. They took the French tongue as their own, and their nobles became great warriors, fighting on horseback, in heavy armour, with swords, iron clubs, and long spears.

In their way of life, these nobles and their women-folk were, compared with others of that day, gentlemen and ladies, delicate in eating and in drinking, polite in speech and manners, lovers of music and poetry. The wealth and splendour of the higher class were shown in large and stately castles, in wearing rich armour, in riding fine horses, in drinking good wines, and in keeping a large number of servants to attend on them in their hours of amusement, at the banquet, and in the chase.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.—I.

(1066.)

Edward the Confessor, an Englishman in race on his father's side, was really a Norman in language and tastes. For nearly thirty years he had lived among his mother's relations in the Norman court at Rouen, and when he came to the throne he brought in the Norman speech and manners, and put Norman favourites into high posts in church and state. In person, Edward was slender, with a delicate complexion and thin womanly hands. His mild religious character gained him the name of "Confessor", and caused his tomb, in his abbey-church of Westminster, to be regarded as that of a saint.

His wife Edith was daughter of his chief minister, Godwin, Earl of Wessex, who saw much danger to the kingdom in the growing power and influence of Normans. He found them holding bishops' sees and great estates, building strong stone castles, and having the command of fortresses and troops. By refusing to punish the citizens of Dover, who had justly driven out of the town a party of Normans from Boulogne, Godwin displeased the king and a quarrel arose between them. These Normans were in the pay of Count Eustace, who had married the king's sister, and they had tried, with insolent rudeness, to force their way into the houses of some of the towns-people. Godwin's son Harold, the bravest and ablest Englishman of his time, took up his father's cause, but in the end Godwin, with Harold and his four brothers, was forced to leave the kingdom for a time.

A year later, in 1052, they came back with a fleet and

body of men, and, sailing up the Thames, received a warm welcome from the people of London. We realize the difference between the London of that time and the London of the present day, when we read that the forces of Godwin's party were drawn up in order of battle on the ground where the Strand, now one of London's chief streets, roars with ceaseless traffic. Behind them little waves of the tidal river were breaking gently on a clean pebbly beach, while in front field and forest stretched far inland.

Edward was now forced to restore Godwin and his sons to their dignities and estates, and to give them a pardon for the past. The Norman bishops and holders of high civil and military posts fled in haste abroad, and for many years the national cause was made safe against foreign intruders. Earl Godwin died in 1053, and then Harold, succeeding his father as Earl of Wessex, became the greatest man in the land, and the real ruler of the country, acting in Edward's name. The king was devoted to the building of churches, to the duties of religion, and to the amusement of hunting the deer and the boar, and was glad to leave affairs in charge of a man so well fitted to conduct them.

Harold ever grew in influence and favour with the people, and, with his brothers Leofwine, Tostig, and Gyrth, had most of the great earldoms in his hands. In 1063 he marched against a powerful chieftain in North Wales, who had defeated some other English commanders, and burning his palace and his ships drove him in flight to the mountains, where he was deposed and slain by his own people. In 1065 he won more favour with the nation by supporting the cause of the Northumbrians

against the tyranny of Tostig, and forcing his brother to flee abroad.



The Coronation of Edward the Confessor

The end of it was that, when Edward the Confessor died, in January, 1066, Harold was chosen king by the *Witan*, or council of chief men. This body, whose full

name was *Witenagemot*, or "meeting of wise men", was composed of nobles, thanes (lower nobles), bishops, and abbots. These men were advisers of the king in important affairs, and had the right of choosing a fit man to rule. They had hitherto always elected a king from the royal line, but Edgar, the sole male survivor of the old line of Cerdic, king of Wessex, was too young and too weak in character for the post. Thus it came that for the first and only time in our history, an Englishman not of royal blood, Harold, was crowned and anointed king at Westminster.

The new sovereign soon had to fight for the crown which, by good service to the land, and with the goodwill of all the people, he had nobly won. Storms of war were coming from the north and from the south, and one of these was to overwhelm the brave Harold after a few months of power, and to bring about vast changes affecting the future of the country which he had ruled.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.—II.

(1066)

The invaders from the north were the forces of Harold Hardrada, king of Norway, a famous warrior, who now came with a great fleet and army to help the angry Tostig against his brother, the English king. They landed on the Yorkshire coast, and Harold hurried from the south to meet them. Before he arrived, Earls Edwin and Morcar, the rulers of Mercia and Northumbria, had been defeated in a severe battle near York, and that city had been taken by the enemy. The English king fell upon

the victors at Stamford Bridge, near York, on September 25th, and beat them in a battle in which his brother Tostig, Harold king of Norway, and most of the Norway nobles were killed.

Harold was seated at a banquet in York when one of his thanes, who had ridden hard and fast from Sussex, brought news of another invasion. Three days after the battle of Stamford Bridge, William, Duke of Normandy, had landed at Pevensey Bay, near Hastings, with an army of 60,000 men. He claimed the throne of England on various grounds, which we need not now examine, and he had spent some months in preparing a fleet and gathering troops from France and other countries. For some weeks, in August and September, the wind had kept his fleet in harbour, at a time when Harold was ready to meet him either on sea or land.

Harold's troops had been then disbanded for the harvest, and his ships had gone to various ports in order to refit and to take in new supplies of food. At this great crisis in the history of England, the wind which had kept the Duke of Normandy's men from crossing the Channel had much to do with the issue of events. Harold had lost many of his best officers and men in the fight against his brother Tostig and Hardrada of Norway, and he was forced to meet William with an army gathered in haste as he marched from York to Sussex.

On October 14th, 1066, the men led by Harold were posted on some high ground near a place then called Senlac, now Battle, about seven miles north-west of Hastings. On the right lay some marshy ground, and part of the front was covered by a trench and palisade, with a further defence of wicker-work and of felled trees,

used the swords which they drew from the belt or girdle, or the great hatchets which they usually carried slung from the neck.

The militia, on Harold's right and left wings, were rudely armed with pikes and pitch-forks, some few having bows and arrows. Alongside the royal standard was planted the old flag of Wessex, with its golden dragon. Harold gave his men strict orders to fight only in defence, and not to leave their position. All would be well, he declared, if they stood still and cut down every Norman who tried to force the barricade.

Such was the array that saw the Norman host approach, as the mist cleared off beneath the risen sun, about nine o'clock on that Saturday morning. They were marching in three divisions along the ridge of hills beyond the valley at the foot of the ground held by Harold and his men. Moving down to the lower ground, they made ready to assault the English position from one end to the other. The air rang with the notes of trumpets and horns as the Norman cavalry, the main part of their force, and the footmen, all clad in armour, took the central place under the immediate command of Duke William.

Around him were the chief nobles, and at his side rode his half-brother Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, armed only with a mace or club of iron, as fighting priests were not allowed to slay with either sword or spear. A knight carried the holy banner blessed by the pope, and sent to help the duke in his enterprise. William's army also contained a large number of good archers, shooting heavy arrows with great force from powerful bows.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.—III.

(1066)

The battle began with volleys of Norman arrows, followed by the advance of the armoured foot, while the mailed horsemen, carrying heavy lance, sword, and mace, came on in the rear. A furious fight arose along the front of the barricade, but at no point could the enemy force a passage. Every man was cut down as he came within reach of the English axes, and hour after hour passed away in vain efforts. The English shields kept off the arrows, and the attacking lines turned and fled. Some of the English, forgetting the command of Harold, went forth in pursuit.

A cry arose among the Normans that the duke was killed, but he pulled off his helmet to show his face, crying "I live, and by God's help I will win the day". William and Odo then stayed the flight of the men, who turned round and slew many of the pursuing English, while the rest regained their place on the hill. The assault on the English centre was then renewed by footmen and horsemen, and the duke strove again and again to force his way to the royal standard and meet Harold hand to hand.

In this new attack he came so near that Gyrth killed William's horse with a javelin. The duke then pressed forward on foot, and slew Gyrth in a hand-to-hand encounter. Earl Leofwine was the next English leader to fall, and the Normans at last cut down, with swords and hatchets, a part of the barricade. Harold and his men, however, still kept up so stout a defence that the Normans again withdrew. Then the duke gave the order

for the famous pretended flight which had so much influence in winning victory for his arms on this dreadful day

After another assault the Normans turned as if in utter fright, and the English, forgetting their leader's order, in their excitement and joy, rushed forth in pursuit. The line was broken, and the hill was at many points left without defenders. Then the Norman horsemen, kept ready by William for that opportunity, charged up the slope, and some parts of the position were won. Still Harold, in the centre, kept his ground, surrounded by his men with their wall of shields, and the English axes were still wielded with deadly effect on all who came within their sweeping stroke.

As long as the English king was alive the battle was not lost, and twilight was coming on, after nearly nine hours of conflict. Then a device of the Norman duke brought a sudden turn in the fortunes of the fight. He bade the archers shoot upwards, so that the arrows fell like hail on the heads of the troops round Harold. Some were pierced in the neck and face, and all were driven to hold the shield above the head, thus exposing the body to the foemen's shafts.

At last Harold, moving his shield aside to make a blow with his axe, had the right eye pierced by an arrow. In agony he plucked at the shaft and broke it off, and then fell helpless between the royal standard and the dragon-flag of Wessex. With a furious cry of joy a score of Norman knights rushed forward to grasp the standard, but most of them were at once cut down. The royal banner was beaten down by the others, and the dragon-flag was carried off.

The last hope of the English was gone when their gallant king, as he lay on the ground, was killed. Even then, with the stubborn courage which has earned glory for our arms, in rare defeat and in many a victory, the English held out against the Normans. The royal guard died to the last man, and it was only amid the darkness of night that the last remnant of the vanquished drifted slowly from the field. The Norman duke had fought like a hero throughout the day. He had three horses killed under him and his shield and helmet were dented by blows. He ate and drank that night among the dead, and took his rest upon the ground which he had won.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.—IV.

(1066-1071.)

The body of Harold, much disfigured by his many wounds, was found by some monks after the battle, and buried first on the sea-coast at Pevensey. It was afterwards removed to their abbey at Waltham, in Essex, a religious house founded by the king. The fall of Harold and his brothers had decided the fate of England. There was no one to lead the brave and stubborn islanders in effective resistance to the victor of Senlac. William first took possession of Dover and its castle, and then, through Canterbury, marched on London. The suburb or outwork called Southwark was burned, but the duke had no vessels by which to cross the river.

He therefore took his men for many miles along the south bank to Wallingford in Berkshire, and there crossed either by the ford or the bridge. When he came down

upon London from the north, the chief citizens, with the leading nobles and bishops, accepted him as king. On



Disturbance during the Coronation of the Conqueror—William seizes the Crown

Christmas-day, 1066, he was crowned at Westminster, in the new church built by the late king, Edward the Confessor, on the ground where the present "Abbey"

stands. Soon afterwards hereceived the submission of other leading nobles who had not been present at his coronation.

It was five years before William I., surnamed "the Conqueror", became fully master of his English realm. At the end of 1067, having returned to Normandy to attend to his affairs in the duchy, he was called back to England by a rebellion in the south-west, partly provoked by misconduct of the Normans. He was the greatest man of his time, and one of the great men of all time, as a warrior, a general, and a ruler of mankind. His bodily size and strength were as remarkable as the fierceness of his courage and his skill as a leader. He was terrible in wrath and pitiless in revenge, but not a wantonly unjust and oppressive tyrant.

The new king soon settled matters in the west. Exeter yielded after eighteen days of siege, Cornwall made no resistance, and William returned to keep the Easter of 1068 at Winchester. In the same year a rising in the north was prepared, but William's prompt advance to and capture of York made an end of that trouble. In the following year, another northern rebellion was aided by armies from Scotland and from Denmark. York was taken, with its new Norman castle, and most of the king's garrison of three thousand men perished in desperate street-fighting.

The wrath of William was joined with coolness and cunning. When he went north with a great army, he bribed the Danish chiefs to sail away with their men, and then dealt with his rebellious English subjects. In the spring of 1070, the whole country between the Humber and the Tees was laid waste. The houses were burnt, the implements of tillage were broken up, and every man that

the troops came across was killed. It is believed that 100,000 persons perished in the famine which followed, and a chronicler, writing fifty years later, tells us that "the ground for more than sixty miles remains bare to the present day".

The king then turned to the west, and made an end of resistance and revolt on the Welsh border. The last struggle of the English was that headed by the famous Hereward, in the Isle of Ely. That farm-land district, now well drained and tilled, was then really an island, amid a waste of morasses and reed-beds. William himself was driven to use his utmost energy and skill in order to overcome the last brilliant effort for freedom from Norman rule. A great naval force was gathered in the Wash, and every arm of the sea that led into the fens was blocked.

A great causeway leading into the heart of Hereward's position was begun, but he made sudden attacks upon the workmen as they drove the piles, and the work made slow progress. At last the monks of Ely showed William a secret passage, amidst the waters and reeds, to Hereward's camp, and his entrenchments were stormed by the Norman troops. The conquest of England was thus completed, and the king was left free to settle the mode of governing the country which he had won

NORMAN ENGLAND.—I.

(1071-1087.)

When he had become fully master of England, William set up in this country, with an important difference, the

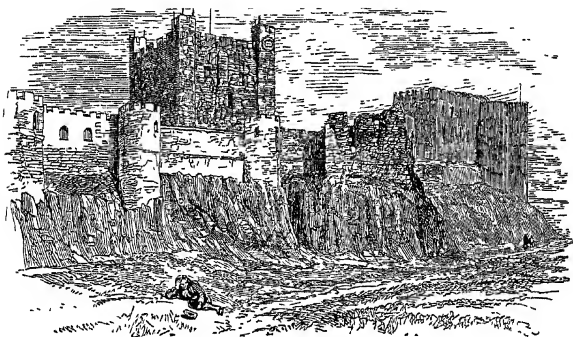
complete form of feudal power which existed in Germany and France. Much of the land was divided amongst the nobles—earls, barons, and knights—who had fought near Hastings, and in return for the gift, each holder had to “do homage” to the king. With bare head, and without his arms or armour, the noble knelt down before the sovereign, and took an oath of “fealty” to him as supreme lord. By this oath he was bound, when the king called him to war, to serve for a certain time with his armed followers. In the Norman system of feudality, as established in England, a special point was that all the freeholders, both the tenants-in-chief or barons, and the under-tenants or barons’ vassals, had to swear direct allegiance to the king. The sovereign had thus a far greater power than that which was possessed by the feudal sovereigns of the Continent, where the oath of fealty was taken by the vassal only to his own lord.

There were about 1400 tenants-in-chief, including the bishops and the abbots of the monasteries. These great owners of land let out part of their estates, on the same terms, to smaller tenants, and the king, if the lords obeyed his call, could thus always have men to fight his battles. If the barons joined their forces against the king, they had great power to prevent him from doing wrong, and we shall see that this power was sometimes used in favour of general freedom.

All the chief posts of authority in the state and the church were now bestowed on Norman lords and knights. Strong stone castles, some of which are still to be seen as ivy-clad ruins, were built to hold garrisons of men who kept the people down, though they sometimes resisted the forces of the king. The old English *Witan* became

the "Great Council" of the sovereign, a sort of House of Lords, where bishops and abbots sat with earls, barons, and knights.

Norman-French was the language used at court and by all the upper class, while the mass of the conquered people kept to the English tongue. Many persons con-



Bamborough Castle, Northumberland.

nected with trade and the arts came over from Normandy, and progress was made in learning and commerce under the new rule. The chief good done by the Norman conquest was that the firm government of the first three kings after the conquest gave peace to the land, and favoured the rise and progress of the towns.

As the townspeople grew rich, they obtained through the king's favour, or they bought from him or from other feudal lords who had power and right over them, documents called charters. These charters gave them to a certain extent the right of governing themselves. Justice

was done to them by their equals, as every townsman could claim to be tried by his fellows in the town-court, which sat every week. Then by degrees similar rights were granted to those who lived on the feudal lord's lands outside the walls. Thus the old English freedom came slowly back to the whole body of the people.

There are two things which it is very important to notice as established in the days of William I. The first is, that the king could not take money from the great tenants of the crown, or from their sub-tenants, without the consent of the barons in the Great Council. We here have the principle which became so important in the Stuart times, that taxes cannot be laid on the subject without the consent of Parliament.

The second thing is, that it was fully settled that the pope had no power over English kings in their own realm. In 1073 the able and energetic Hildebrand, called Pope Gregory the Seventh, sent three legates or ambassadors to England, demanding "homage" from William for his new realm, as if he held his English power by the pope's leave. As Duke of Normandy, William had, according to the custom, rendered homage to the pope of that time for his dukedom.

He now replied to Pope Gregory, "Homage to thee I have not chosen, nor do I choose, to do (for England). I never made a promise to that effect, neither do I find that it was ever performed by my predecessors to thine." The independent position thus upheld by William was long maintained by the clergy, and thus the Church in England, at the Conquest, would have no interference from the pope. One of William's few mistakes was the creation of a new court to try any clergy who were

guilty of crime. This led to serious trouble under one of his successors, as we shall see.

NORMAN ENGLAND.—II.

(1087–1154.)

We must pass quickly over the period that followed the Norman Conquest. In 1087, William I. was riding through Mantes, a French town taken by his troops, and burned at his command, when his horse stumbled as it trod on some hot ashes. The king was thrown violently against the pommel of his saddle, and suffered such injuries that he died. His eldest son, Robert, became Duke of Normandy, and his second son, William, had the throne of England. The new king, William II., called *Rufus* (Latin for *red*) from the colour of his face or hair, was a strong and able ruler, and with the help of his English subjects he kept in order the rebellious barons. His life was wicked. When in want of money, he freely plundered both the people and the church.

When he rode about the country, with the lords and knights of his court, they all lived at the cost of the farmers, eating up the corn and cattle and fowls, and seizing whatever they had a mind to take. The church revenues were stolen by keeping the sees vacant on the death of bishops, while the king took the money that came in from the church-lands. The best man in England, Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury, was driven from the country when he upheld the rights of the church. In 1100 no man was grieved when the king

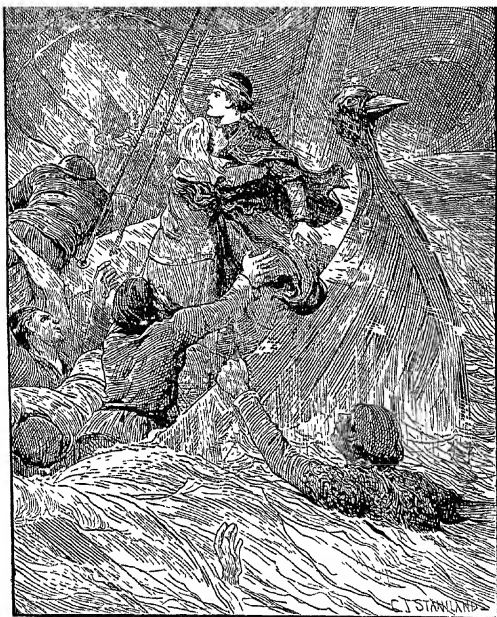
died in the New Forest, shot with an arrow by an unknown hand.

His younger brother came to the throne, as Henry I. He won the favour of the barons by granting, in 1101, a *Charter of Liberties*, guarding the church and the nobles from lawless and endless demands for money. In the same document he also undertook, both for the lords and for the body of the people, to rule according to the laws and customs of Edward the Confessor. The English were specially pleased by his marriage to a lady of their own royal line. This was Matilda, daughter of Malcolm, King of Scotland, and of Margaret, a descendant of Edmund Ironside, a son of Ethelred II.

The Norman and English lines of kings were thus joined, and it is thus that Queen Victoria is both of the old English and of the Norman-French race. Matilda was, on her mother's side, a descendant of Alfred the Great, and through him the Queen's line goes back to Egbert, himself a descendant of Cerdic, who landed in Hampshire in the fifth century. No sovereign in the world can boast of so clear and ancient a descent.

For thirty-five years Henry I. ruled with a strong hand. Barons who opposed him were driven out, and order was strictly kept in the land. He took Normandy from his brother Robert, and kept him a prisoner for the rest of his life, nearly thirty years, in Cardiff Castle, in South Wales. The great grief of his life came when his only son, Prince William, was drowned, with many young nobles, in the wreck of the *White Ship*. A gang of drunken rowers, and a steersman full of wine, drove the vessel upon a rock as she left the harbour of Barfleur, in Normandy.

The death of this young prince brought grievous trouble to the English people. When Henry died, in



The Wreck of the White Ship.

1135, there was only a daughter to succeed him. This was Matilda, called the Empress Maud, as widow of an Emperor of Germany. She had a young son, Henry, whose father was her second husband, Geoffrey Plantagenet, Count of Anjou, a province in France. It was

from him that the famous line of the Plantagenet kings of England had their name.

Many of the barons in England did not wish to submit to a woman as ruler, and supported the cause of Stephen Count of Blois, a nephew of Henry I. He obtained power by help of his wealth, and by the support of barons and bishops, and of the citizens of London, to whom he had become well known during his life in England. A long and dreadful civil war took place, bringing the utmost misery on the land. David, King of Scotland, helped Matilda, but his troops were defeated in the Battle of the Standard at Northallerton, in Yorkshire. Fighting was continued for many years. At length, to prevent further bloodshed, it was arranged that Stephen should keep the throne until his death, and that then Maud's son, Henry, should succeed him as king.

NORMAN ENGLAND.—III.

(1154-1164)

The first monarch of the Plantagenet line, Henry II., who came to the throne in 1154, was one of the greatest kings of his own line, and one of the ablest rulers in our history. His power was very widely spread. He had inherited from his father and mother, or had gained by his marriage with the French princess Eleanor, the rule of most of western France. His strong and active body, lively speech, power of work, ready and retentive memory, watchfulness, firmness, and regular way of doing business, were just the gifts and qualities needed for the work which he had to do.

Internal peace, law, and order were soon restored, after the dreadful troubles of Stephen's reign. The king was resolved to be master in the land, over all orders and classes in church and state. This was not for his own selfish ends, but for what he believed to be the welfare of all his subjects. The kingdom was divided into six regular districts or circuits, each with three judges. These judges gave the nation justice, both in civil and in criminal affairs, holding assizes as at the present day. In this manner, at a time when roads were bad and travel costly, and only the rich could come to London, the law was brought to the people's doors.

The chief minister of Henry for some years was one of those churchmen who, like Dunstan before the Conquest, and Wolsey under Henry the Eighth, took a great share in state affairs. In 1157 the famous Thomas Becket was made chancellor, or chief judge and chief adviser of the king. He was the son of a London citizen, and had entered the church. He was a learned and able man, ready in wit and speech, with a fine person, and a taste both for the sports of the field and for the revelry of the feast. Nor was he backward in warlike affairs, for in 1159 he fought bravely at the king's side, leading the knights of his own household against the King of France.

The splendour of his way of life is shown, strangely for us who have good carpets and rugs, by the fact that his floors were freshly spread every day with clean straw in winter, and in summer with fresh rushes from the riverside or pool. The chambers of nobles of that day had, as a rule, fresh straw or rushes laid down only once every few weeks.

In 1162 Becket was made Archbishop of Canterbury,

and then Henry found his faithful servant become a strong opponent of his will. Becket at once gave up his office as chancellor, and devoted himself wholly to the affairs and interests of the church. From a courtier and man of the world he became a man of strict and self-denying life. His gay attire was exchanged for a monk's frock, and a hair-shirt was worn next his skin. No longer followed by a train of nobles, with knights for a body-guard, the archbishop fed the poor at his own table, waiting on them, and washing their feet.

Amongst the legal changes made by the king, the church-courts founded, as we have seen, by William I, had been left alone. The clergy had there the right of trying all those of their own order who were guilty of crime. These courts could not give the punishment of death, and there were many who thought them far too gentle in dealing with offenders. Henry resolved to have all his subjects on the same level as regarded the criminal law. Becket was determined, if it were possible, to maintain the privileges of the Church in dealing with the clergy.

In January, 1164, a Great Council met at Clarendon, near Salisbury, and there the king induced the members to make some rules called the *Constitutions of Clarendon*. Under this new law, as it really was, clergymen were to be tried for all offences in the king's courts. Those tribunals were also to settle all matters of dispute between the clergy and laymen concerning debt and property. It was also ordered that no bishop or high official of the church should leave the kingdom without the sovereign's permission. The king was also henceforth to have control over the choice of any new abbot or bishop.

NORMAN ENGLAND.—IV.

(1164–1170).

Becket, yielding at first to the king and barons, had given his assent by oath to the important change of the law made by the Constitutions of Clarendon. He soon repented of this weakness, and the pope absolved him from his oath, and refused to allow the clergy to obey the *Constitutions*. Then the king, in October, 1164, called another Council at Northampton, and had Becket condemned for disobedience to the law. All his lands and other property were declared to be forfeited. The boldness of Becket, supported by the decision of the pope, only rose the higher as the danger to himself increased.

On the last day of the council he preached from the text, "Princes sat and spake against me", and he then went in procession to the king's house, bearing the archbishop's cross in his own hands. As he entered the hall the king retired, followed by the bishops and nobles, and Becket took his seat, with a few of the humbler clergy grouped around him. Henry was roused to wrath by his subject's open defiance, and the Bishop of Exeter, fearing for what might happen, returned to the hall. Flinging himself on his knees before the archbishop, he begged him to have pity on himself and his brethren. The only reply made was "Flee, then, thou canst not understand the things that are of God".

The other bishops declared that they would no longer obey Becket as archbishop, on the ground that he had sworn to observe the *Constitutions*, and had then resisted them and broken his fealty to the king. "I hear what ye say", was Becket's answer, and then he disclaimed the

duty of obeying the decision of the king and barons, "being only to be judged", as he said, "under God, by our lord the pope." As he rose to depart, a cry of "traitor" was heard, and then the man's old warrior-spirit flashed out in the words, "If my holy office did not forbid it, I would make answer with my sword".

Then the archbishop passed out of the king's hall, and left Northampton at dead of night, with only two attendants. A few days later he escaped to France in a small fishing-boat from Sandwich in Kent, and thus went into voluntary exile for six years. During his exile Becket often spoke and wrote against Henry, but in July, 1170, the King of France persuaded them to meet, and they seemed once more to become friends. Men noticed, however, that the king, when he held Becket's stirrup as he mounted his horse, did not give him "the kiss of peace". This token of friendship, used in early Christian times, was greatly valued, in the feudal age, from the lips of a king.

Henry and Becket, the sovereign and the subject, had on this occasion parted to meet no more on earth. The archbishop left for England, restored to his office and lands, on his promise to love, honour, and serve the king "in as far as an archbishop could render in the Lord service to his sovereign". As soon as he landed at Dover, on December 1st, 1170, Becket found a new cause of quarrel. The Archbishop of York and the Bishops of London and Salisbury, by the king's command, had lately consecrated and crowned Prince Henry, a youth of fifteen years of age. The crowning of a son during his father's lifetime was a continental custom, adopted to secure the peaceable succession to the throne at the king's death.

The archbishop was enraged at this act, which he regarded as an interference with his office, and an act of disobedience. He had forbidden it when he was still in exile, and had supported his order by the pope's own command. He now suspended the Archbishop of York from his office, and excommunicated the two bishops. When they crossed over to Normandy and laid their complaint before the king at Bayeux, Henry flew into a violent passion, crying, "Is there no one to deliver me from this turbulent priest?" The words, however they were meant by the king, were really a sentence of death to Becket.

NORMAN ENGLAND.—V

(1170-1189).

Four knights of the household started for England by different roads. Henry at once sent off an order that no personal harm should be done to the archbishop, but his messenger did not overtake any of the four. On the night of December 28th, the four courtiers, named William de Tracy, Hugh de Morville, Richard Brito, and Reginald Fitz-Urse, met at Saltwood Castle, near Hythe, on the south coast of Kent. There they were welcomed by the owner, Ranulph de Broc, who had been solemnly excommunicated by Becket for misusing the property of the See of Canterbury.

On the next day they rode off to Canterbury and had an interview with the archbishop at his palace. He refused either to leave the country or to withdraw his sentence against the bishops. In the evening he went to vespers in the cathedral, and as he entered the place from

the cloisters, the tramp of armed men and the rattle of their mail was heard mingling with the slow tread of the monks. When the knights rushed into the church, the monks, all save one, hid away behind the pillars or in dark recesses

As Becket stood alone at the head of the steps of the transept, De Tracy cried, "Where is the traitor? Where is the archbishop?" "Here am I," was the answer, "the archbishop, but no traitor!" "Thou art a prisoner," said the knight, and took him by the sleeve. Then the old warlike temper was roused, and Becket flung him off with violence. The assailants tried to drag him from the place, in order to escape the guilt of murder upon sacred ground. The archbishop struggled hard, and Fitz-Urse raised his sword and struck a blow which alighted on the prelate's head and left shoulder. At the same time it severely wounded the arm of the faithful cross-bearer, Edward Gryme, a monk of Cambridge

Blow followed blow. Becket was brought to his knees. Then he fell flat on his face on the ground, murmuring his readiness to die for Jesus and His church. As he lay without stirring, Brito dealt him a last fearful stroke on the head. All men who heard of the murder were shocked, and the archbishop's tomb was held to be that of a martyr and saint, to which pilgrims travelled for many a year to offer prayers. Henry clearly showed the pope that he had no part in the crime, and did penance at Canterbury, where the monks flogged his bare back with a knotted cord

The last years of Henry's life were much troubled by the wicked conduct of his four sons, all of whom rebelled or plotted against their father. Henry, the eldest, died

in 1184, and Geoffrey, the third, was killed by accident in 1186. Richard, the second son, helped the King of France in a war against Henry, and the king was forced, in the last year of his life, to give up some of his French dominions. The youngest son, John, his father's favourite



Crusaders approaching Jerusalem

child, was one of those who had joined the French sovereign. On learning this, the king, then lying ill, turned his face to the wall with the bitter cry, "Now let everything go as it will". His death in July, 1189, left the throne to Richard.

During his ten years' reign, Richard the First, called "Lion-hearted", from his love of fighting and his courage in war, spent only a few months in England. He was a very powerful, handsome man, with fair face and hair, and large bright blue eyes. He did no good whatever to

his people, and his fame rests on his work in the Third Crusade. This was one of the wars in Palestine, the "Holy Land", where Christian armies from Europe fought to win Jerusalem from the power of the Saracens.

These people were believers in the prophet Mahomet, and the brave Sultan Saladin, their ruler at that time, was Richard's chief opponent. On his way home the English king became the prisoner of his enemy, the Duke of Austria, and his people had to pay an enormous sum of money to set him free. His death came in 1199, from an arrow-wound received during the siege of the castle of Chaluz.

THE GREAT CHARTER.

(1215)

John, the only English king of that name, was one of the most wicked men that ever lived. He had been a very bad and rebellious son, and had plotted against his brother Richard, who repeatedly forgave him. As a king, he was full of clever schemes which always failed in the end, and their failure brought great good to the English people. In a war with France, he lost all his French territory to the north of the Garonne. The nobles who had estates in Normandy had then to choose between France and England as their country.

If they went over to live upon their lands in France they became subjects of the French king. Those who stayed in England, as most of them did, and lived on their estates among their people, soon came to regard England as their country, and her people as their fellow-subjects. The two races, long hostile, had now common

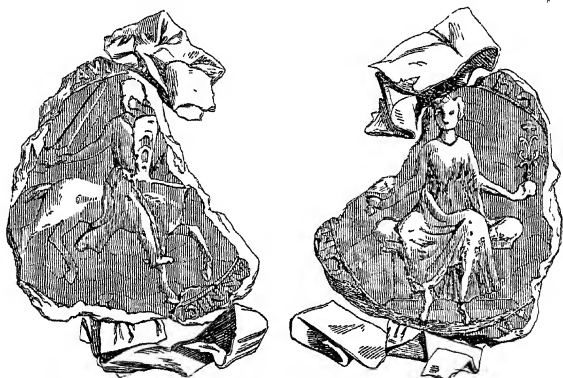
interests and common foes. The descendants of those who had fought and won at Senlac under William, and of those who had maintained the brave defence under Harold, were now united in a common feeling against an evil king.

The great English nation had now been formed by the union of Britons, Angles, Saxons, Danes, and Normans, and the higher class laid aside the use of the French language, and learned to speak the tongue spoken by the mass of the people. The barons of England, in defending themselves against the tyranny of John, showed their regard for the rights of those who tilled the land.

The quarrel of John with Pope Innocent III. arose from a dispute about the choice of an archbishop of Canterbury. The monks of Canterbury chose one man, and the king insisted on having another. The pope rejected both, and caused the election of the good and able Stephen Langton, who had lived in Rome and become a cardinal. In the end John was forced to submit, and, under threat of deposition, to do homage to the pope for his kingdom.

His subjects would not help him to resist the will of the pope, because his cruel and disgraceful conduct towards all classes had roused against him general hatred. At last, in 1214, the barons were united against the king, under Langton and Robert Fitzwalter, as head of the "Army of God and Holy Church". In January, 1215, they marched with their followers to London, and required the king to govern according to the laws and the charter of Henry I. After gaining time to consider matters, John declared, at Oxford, that he would never grant demands that would make himself a slave.

The barons then prepared for war, and entered London, where they received a hearty welcome from the citizens. John was at Winchester, and was helpless because none of his people would lift an arm in his cause. In June, 1215, he met the barons in council at Runnymede, on the Thames bank near Windsor, and was there forced to



Great Seal of John, appended to Magna Charta, in British Museum

accept and seal the document called the *Great Charter*. This document put in a definite form the customary privileges of the people hitherto referred to vaguely as the laws of Edward. It limited the power of the king as lord paramount, and claimed freedom for Englishmen from all injustice of the sovereign in matters of church and state. It settled once for all that kings or queens in this country may not act just as they please, but must govern by laws which they, as well as the lowest of their subjects, are bound to obey.

It was laid down that no sovereign could demand

money or tax from his subjects without first having leave to do so from the Great Council, afterwards called Parliament. Personal freedom and property were made safe against lawless action, as long as the Charter was maintained. Other kings, down to Henry VI, were made to confirm it. It is said to have been confirmed in all nearly forty times. In this way the rights of Englishmen became fully known and were constantly in the minds of men.

John, although he had sworn to observe the Charter, got troops from abroad, and made war with some success against the barons. The country was happily rid of him a few months later, when he died of fever just after the rising tide in the Wash had swept away his baggage with his jewels and his crown. He was succeeded, in 1216, by his young son Henry, nine years of age, and the wise and good men who had charge of affairs soon cleared the country of all the foreigners.

RISE OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.—I.

HENRY THE THIRD, 1216-1272.

In the earlier years of Henry III.'s reign, the regent, Hubert de Burgh, omitted from the Great Charter, as confirmed by the king, the words which forbade the raising of money without the consent of the Great Council. The death of good Archbishop Langton, in 1228, a year after Henry began to rule for himself, removed one of the great checks on unlawful taxation by the sovereign. Henry was a man of very weak character, without control over his temper or his tongue,

very changeable, and fond of display. His wife, Queen Eleanor, was the daughter of a French noble, and after her marriage in 1236 many of her relations and friends came over and received offices, castles, and lands.

The chief minister at this time, Peter des Roches, Bishop of Winchester, filled the court with his countrymen from Poitou, a French province, and they also were provided with wealth and honours, to the great disgust of English barons and knights. Henry was eager to rule with the absolute power over his subjects which he saw possessed by the King of France, and his efforts in this way caused great discontent and, in the end, rebellion. He also thought it his duty to give way to the claims of the pope, as being the head of the church, and having the right to tax the clergy in all countries.

Constant demands for money were made by the papal legates or officials sent over for the purpose, and the king unlawfully took money from his subjects on all sorts of pretences. When his son Edward was born in 1239, Henry sent out all over the country, asking the rich to make presents, so that one of the nobles was driven to cry, "God gave us the child, but the king sells him to us". All kinds of goods for the use of the king's household were taken by his officials, at their own price or without any payment at all. This last form of wrongdoing was one of the things expressly forbidden in the Great Charter.

The judges on their circuits raised money for the king by ordering the payment of great sums as punishment for offences committed by the rich. The Jews were plundered by Henry as they had been by his father John, who once had a rich Jew's teeth drawn daily one

by one until he confessed where his wealth was hidden. The merchants of London and the abbots of the monasteries were also forced to lend money, which was never repaid, or to make costly presents to their sovereign. Men grew weary of this mean tyranny for the benefit of the king's favourites, and a strong spirit of resistance was aroused.

Special anger was stirred against the pope and his officials. Many of the best bishoprics and livings or benefices in the church were bestowed on Italians, and sometimes on mere boys, and on men of evil life. The pious and learned Robert Grosseteste, Bishop of Lincoln, was suspended from his office because he refused to admit, to a rich living in his diocese, a boy from Italy appointed by the pope. The Great Council, which had now begun to be called "Parliament", often spoke out strongly against these evil doings. In 1244 they sent messengers to Rome, complaining to Innocent IV. concerning the acts of one of his officials, "Master Martin".

In the following year this man was got rid of in a short and sharp way. A powerful baron named Fitz-Warrenne presented himself before Martin, and ordered him at once to leave the country. The Italian demanded in whose name the order was given, and the English noble replied, "I speak in the name of all the barons of England. If you are wise, do not stay till the third day, lest you and all your company be cut in pieces." In great fear and trembling Martin went off to the king, but his only comfort was to be told by Henry that he could scarcely keep the barons from rising against himself. The Italian then put spurs to his horse, and hurried off to Dover.

The king entirely failed in his attempts to recover the French territory which had been lost by his father John. On one occasion, as he was fighting in the south of France against the king, Louis IX., he only escaped capture through the courage of a few of his nobles. Among these was the great man, one of the most famous in all our history, whose life and deeds we shall now relate. A noble of French birth, he was to stand forth as the champion of English freedom, and to render services to our nation which will never be forgotten.

RISE OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.—II.

SIMON DE MONTFORT, 1231-1258.

Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, a man of rare ability, high purpose, and resolute heart, was born in France about 1208, and brought up at Montfort, a castle situated between the cities of Paris and Chartres. The troubles of the time forced him to leave his native land. He was kindly received by Henry III., to whom he did homage, in 1231, as earl in succession to his father's title. He thus became an English subject, and being handsome in face and strong in body, and of proved courage and skill in war, he was just the man to win the favour of ladies. In 1238 he married the king's sister Eleanor.

Henry himself gave the bride away in the royal chapel. She had formerly been married to William Marshal, Earl of Pembroke, one of the barons united against King John. In her grief for Pembroke's death in 1231, when she was sixteen years of age, Eleanor had vowed to remain a widow, and the Archbishop of Canterbury,

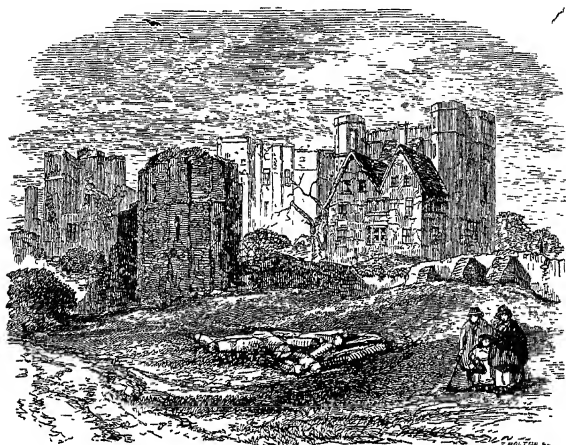
the pious Edmund Rich, held that her second marriage was a wrongful act. De Montfort, however, soon obtained from Pope Gregory IX. a dispensation declaring the marriage to be valid. His wife already bore a high character for her discretion and high spirit, and she proved herself fully worthy of her second husband

The English barons were at first very jealous of the favour shown by the king to a foreigner, but De Montfort managed to win the good-will of the king's brother, the Earl of Cornwall. In June, 1239, he was one of the godfathers of Henry's eldest son, Prince Edward, but a few weeks afterwards a quarrel arose about a debt which Simon owed, and the king's violent anger drove Simon and his wife into exile. In the following year he won fame in Palestine by skill in warfare against the Saracens.

It was in 1242 that he helped to save Henry in the south of France, and then he was restored to full favour. The king bestowed on De Montfort the splendid castle of Kenilworth, which lay between Warwick and Coventry, and still shows by its ruins what a stately structure it was. It was one of the largest places of the kind in England, surrounded by a double row of ramparts, and by a moat half a mile in circuit, and in some parts a quarter of a mile broad. The walls inclosed seven acres of ground, and two hundred people could dine at once in the great hall

There for five years Earl Simon and his countess lived in peace. Their five sons were, in due time, intrusted to the care of Bishop Grosseteste of Lincoln, a great friend of De Montfort's. Through him the earl and his wife became known to the famous Franciscan friar, Adam

de Marisco, or Adam Marsh. He was a leader amongst the pious men called friars, or brothers, who went about preaching in town and country, and doing all they could to help the poor and lowly. They knew how to tend the sick as well as to teach the Christian faith,



Kenilworth Castle

and they gained great power over the minds and hearts of the people.

There is no record in history of any nobler friendship than that which existed among these three men. The bishop, the baron, and the friar all saw and understood the evils of the time, and were banded together in efforts to mend them. They were firmly united against oppression both from the king and from the pope. Earl Simon became, through Friar Marsh, known to the reforming

party among the burgesses or citizens of the towns, and these men served him well when the time of trouble came.

In 1248 De Montfort was appointed governor of Gascony, in the south-west of France, the only remaining French possession of the English crown. He did good service in keeping down the king's unruly French barons, but this did not prevent the weak and ungrateful Henry from listening to false complaints against his faithful servant. In 1252 the earl was tried before the Great Council on charges of oppression brought by some Gascon barons. He defended himself with great ability, and was declared to be innocent by his judges. On the very next day, in some dispute with the earl, Henry called Simon to his face "a traitor".

De Montfort's anger broke forth at this insult. "That word is a lie," cried he; "and were you not my sovereign, an ill hour would it be for you in which you dared to utter it."

RISE OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.—III.

SIMON DE MONTFORT (*Continued*), 1258-1264.

This quarrel was ended by the interference of some of the lords, and De Montfort took a noble revenge for the king's bad treatment. He returned to his government in Gascony, and both then and in the following year did good service against the rebellious barons. In the year 1258 matters became very serious in England. The king was deeply in debt, the barons were ready to rebel, and the people in many parts of the country were almost starving. The failure of the harvest in 1257 had made

corn so dear that the poor were eating horse-flesh, and mixing the pounded bark of trees with their flour.

When a parliament was called at Westminster at Easter, 1258, De Montfort and a large body of nobles met in the great hall, each clad in complete mail. They spoke their minds freely to the king concerning his misrule, and declared that it must come to an end. In June there was another meeting of Parliament at Oxford, and the barons went thither with armies of men at their back. By the *Provisions of Oxford*, as the rules now laid down were called, government was placed in the hands of fifteen men, who were "not only to act as the king's private council, but to have a constraining power over all the public acts".

The foreign intruders were driven from the country. All the pope's collectors of money were sent away, and Henry's claims to the French provinces lost by John were given up. The royal power was really used by the committee of barons, but this state of things soon came to an end. They began to quarrel amongst themselves, and the pope absolved Henry from his oath to observe the *Provisions*. In 1261 the king had regained much of his power, and De Montfort retired for a time to France.

In 1263 the death of the Earl of Gloucester, one of the king's most powerful supporters, brought Simon back to England, and his cause was at once joined by the young earl, with all his followers. The Earl of Leicester found himself once more at the head of a barons' party, resolved to sweep away tyranny. He had on his side all the middle classes, as they were then—the knights, the lower clergy, and the citizens of London and the larger towns. The matter was now to be decided by war.

In June, 1263, he marched on London, from which Prince Edward made his escape to Windsor, where he



Simon de Montfort and the Barons before Henry

held the castle with a strong and trusty garrison. Queen Eleanor, his mother, tried to join him there, by going up the river from the Tower, but her barge was attacked by

the people on London Bridge. They hated her because, during the king's absence in France some years before, she had unlawfully extorted money from the merchants, and had imprisoned the two sheriffs for resisting her orders. She was now greeted with loud abuse from the crowd, and pelted with stones and rotten eggs. The lord-mayor then came to her relief, and took her away to a place of safety. Prince Edward did not forget this treatment of his mother.

After an attempt to settle matters, early in 1264, by the arbitration of the King of France, whose decision was rejected by De Montfort and his followers, open war began between the two parties. At first the struggle went against the barons. Northampton, with a number of the Earl of Leicester's knights, was captured by the royal forces in April. Prince Edward took Leicester and Nottingham, and marched for London, but that place was saved by De Montfort's advance. At last, on May 14th, the two armies met at Lewes, in Sussex.

The men of London, on the earl's left wing, were routed and closely pursued by the prince, who eagerly slew them, during a chase of some miles, for their insults to his mother. From this pursuit he returned to find the battle lost. De Montfort had beaten the other divisions of the royal army, and had taken the king and his brother, the Earl of Cornwall. It was agreed that all differences should be settled by a body of arbitrators or judges, partly French and partly English barons, along with the papal legate. All foreigners were to be excluded from office in England, and Prince Edward became a hostage for the king's observance of the treaty.

RISE OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.—IV.

SIMON DE MONTFORT (*Continued*), 1264–1265.

The Earl of Leicester, now king of England in all but name, showed that he could be wise as well as brave and strong, and became the real founder of the House of Commons. In his many years of active life he had come to think that the power of ruling should not belong to kings or nobles alone. He felt that the people, if they were to be well governed, should have themselves a share in managing affairs. They would be more content and more ready to obey the laws and to pay taxes, when they had a voice in making the laws, and in settling what money should be given by the people for the expenses of ruling.

Up to that time the Parliament had been usually made up only of lords or barons, and of the bishops and some of the higher clergy. There were in each county assemblies called shire-courts, where men chosen by the people of the towns and country districts did business with the king's justices or judges when they went on their circuits through the country. The Parliament of Great Britain, as it now exists, arose from a combination of the Great Council with these county-courts or shire-meetings. King John had summoned some "knights of the shire", as these men were called, in 1213, and they had been present also in some parliaments in later years.

Earl Simon, in December, 1264, caused the king to send out writs, or written orders, to the officials called sheriffs in every county. They were bidden to send from each shire "two of the more discreet knights of the county, elected for this purpose by the people". These men were

then to talk over and help to settle such matters as the king would lay before them. Such was the first regular arrangement for the election of those now called "county members" in the House of Commons. The earl went a step further than this, and also had writs issued calling on the citizens of York and Lincoln, and many other towns, to send up two of their "more discreet, loyal, and honest men" to confer with the king.

This was the first time that men were summoned to Parliament as representatives of towns, or "borough members". The trader and the merchant were now to sit along with the barons, the bishops, and the knights of the shire, and to decide on measures for the good of all. All classes in the state were represented, and so there was a true and complete Parliament. We must note that it was not till thirty years later, in 1295, that these "borough members" became regular in their attendance. Not until the reign of Edward III. did the members for counties and towns begin to sit in a chamber apart from the lords and the bishops, and so make the two Houses—Lords and Commons.

We must now trace the brief remaining career of the man who helped so materially to give form to our parliamentary institutions. The barons soon became jealous of his power and fame, and many went over to the side of the king. A loyal feeling was aroused by the fact that Prince Edward was a prisoner at Kenilworth in the hands of De Montfort, and the Parliament ordered that he should remain in what was called "free custody" at Hereford. He gave his word that he would not escape, but a plan was formed for his release and the renewal of the war.

Early in May, 1265, Earl Simon was in the west of England, when some of his greatest enemies landed at Pembroke, in South Wales, with a body of men. On May 28th, Prince Edward, riding with his attendants outside Hereford, asked them to ride races with him in turns, that he might try the speed of his new horse, a gift from a friend. They suspected nothing, and the matter went on until their horses and his were tired out. The prince then leapt off, and mounted a fresh steed which had been kept ready for him at a spot arranged. He then galloped away with a laugh and "good-day" to the lords of his escort.

THE RISE OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.—V

SIMON DE MONTFORT (*Continued*), 1265

The prince was soon at the head of a large force, and the position of the earl became very serious. His son, the younger Simon, marched to his aid with an army from London and the south, and all depended upon his joining his father. The father's cause was ruined by the carelessness of the son. On August 1st, through want of vigilance, he and his men were surprised by Prince Edward at Kenilworth. Simon barely escaped into the castle, and a great plunder was taken by the royal army. As the earl moved from Hereford to meet his son, he and his army, on August 4th, were at Evesham, in Worcester-shire, on the river Avon.

The barber of the earl, as the *Chronicle of Evesham* tells us, went up the clock-tower of the Abbey Church, and came down in gladness to report that he saw the banner of De Montfort on the distant road in advance of

a mighty host of men. He had made a fearful mistake, for, going up again to look out, he came down pale and trembling with the news that it was the royal banners that were in sight. The chronicler tells us that the earl then cried "God have our souls all, our days are all done"

De Montfort did not know his full danger until he saw two divisions of the prince's army hemming in his flanks and rear, as he lay on a narrow piece of land almost encircled by the river. He at once prepared to fight and die. His son Henry begged him to retire while there yet was time, and to leave the battle to him. The good earl stoutly refused to stir, saying that his forefathers had never fled nor wished to flee from battle, and he would live and die like them.

The battle raged from six to nine in the morning, De Montfort fighting like a hero for his life and the liberties of England, until his horse was killed under him. Then, on foot, he dealt with both hands fearful sword-strokes on every side. He refused every call to surrender, shouting "Never, but to God alone". He fell at last amidst a host of foes, his son Henry being also killed. Another son, Guy, having received many wounds, became a prisoner. The body of the earl was buried by the monks of Evesham in front of the high altar, and "Earl Simon the righteous", as he was called by the people, was regarded as a glorious martyr who had died for the good of the church and kingdom.

All the work of his life seemed to be undone. The Parliament, however, which met at Kenilworth, when the castle was forced by famine to surrender, required the king to keep his oath, to preserve the liberties of the

church, and to observe the charters. Prince Edward soon afterwards went on a crusade to the Holy Land, taking with him his wife, Eleanor of Castile. Henry III. died in 1272, in the fifty-seventh year of his reign, the longest in all our history, except those of Queen Victoria and George III. He was buried in the new Abbey Church at Westminster, the present building, of which he was the chief founder.

The new king, Edward I., was still abroad, but he did not care to hurry home, having full confidence in the loyalty of the lords and people. Immediately after the old king's burial at Westminster, Earl de Warrenne, and all the clergy and laity who were present, swore fealty to Edward as their sovereign, laying their hands



Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester — From a window in Chartres Cathedral

on the great altar of the church. Edward was at that time engaged in settling the affairs of his province of Guienne, in the south of France, and afterwards in making a commercial treaty with the Countess of Flanders. This treaty concerned the trade in wool, which England largely exported for manufacture into cloth by the Flemish, subjects of the countess.

It was not until August, 1274, that Edward, the greatest of English kings, the first since the Conquest to bear an English name, landed with his queen at Dover. They were crowned together at Westminster, and there was a great feasting of rich and poor for fifteen days, at tables placed in the open air round the great hall. Oxen, sheep, pigs, and poultry were consumed in wonderful numbers, and we learn from the records that three hundred barrels of wine were bought for this great occasion.

EDWARD THE FIRST.—I.

(1272-1307.)

The eldest son of Henry III. reigned for thirty-five years, from 1272 till 1307. He was a really national ruler, a thorough Englishman in temper and heart, in whom the faults and virtues of the English character are fully and clearly seen. He was just, truthful, hard-working, devoted to duty, and unselfish, on the other hand, he was somewhat wilful, stubborn, and proud. The person, character, and conduct of Edward I. were such as to win the admiration, respect, and trust of his people. Tall and deep-chested, he was physically better fitted than the common run of men for a life of activity and endurance.

Few men were ever able to fight like him, either on horseback with the heavy lance, or on foot, sword in hand, against a crowd of foes. When he was engaged in warfare, he would sometimes lie on the bare ground amongst his men, and have no better fare in meat or drink than the common soldiers. Even as a youth he

showed the skill of a great general, both in leading a large army for the chief movements of a campaign, and in drawing up his troops for attack or defence when the hour of battle came.

The two great objects of his policy as a king were the establishment of a sound and durable form of government, and the bringing of the whole island of Great Britain under the rule of one sovereign. He sought to attain the first of these objects by legislation based on the advice and consent of his subjects, with due regard to royal authority. For the second it was needful to conquer Wales and Scotland. We shall see, a little further on, how far Edward succeeded in his efforts against the independence of those two countries.

The laws which were now made, by Parliament and king, were of great value to the nation. One of Edward's first undertakings was to complete the work begun by Henry II., whom we have seen as the great founder of the English system of administering justice. Out of the great tribunal known as the King's Court, Edward formed the three separate courts of Common Pleas, King's Bench, and Exchequer. The Common Pleas was engaged on cases or legal disputes between subjects; the King's Bench was for higher criminal offences, and for lawsuits in which the crown or government was concerned; the Exchequer dealt with matters regarding the royal revenues.

The *Statute of Winchester* provided for public order and safety against ill-doers at home and invaders from abroad. From among the country gentlemen "Guardians and Conservators of the Peace" were appointed in every shire or county. These magistrates, still called "Justices of the

Peace", in legal phrase, were the same as those who now try the smaller offences in the weekly courts of the country towns. In order to save travellers from the attacks of robbers, the highways between market-towns were to be cleared of timber and brushwood for 200 feet on each side, so as to prevent thieves from lying concealed ready for a sudden rush.

For the defence of England against foreign and domestic foes, all persons owning land to the value of £20 a-year were bound to serve the King in time of war and to take up arms against rebels within the country. Another statute or Act of Parliament dealt with a wrong done to the country by the help of the church. Many land-owners pretended to give estates to the abbeys and churches, so as to escape the payment of taxes for the service of the country. When the tax-gatherers had been thus deceived, the lands were restored, for a small payment, to the real owner. The license or written permission of the crown was now required for every bestowal of lands or houses on religious bodies.

There was much growth of foreign trade in this reign, and large sums of money began to be raised by taxation of goods. In 1275 an export duty of 6s. 8d., or half a mark, was imposed on every sack of wool that was sent abroad, chiefly to the weavers of Flanders. There was also a duty on exported leather, and import duties were levied on metals coming from Germany, wine from France, and other products from Italy and Spain. By the *Statute of Merchants*, traders received large powers for enforcing the payment for goods which were sold.

EDWARD THE FIRST.—II.

(1272-1307)

It is important to notice how English freedom was maintained in this reign by the action of the barons, the men who had won the Great Charter, sword in hand, from the wicked tyrant John. Edward, in order to pay for warfare with France and Scotland, on several occasions levied moneys from the merchants and barons without consent of Parliament. In this the king was taking advantage of the omission, under Henry III., as we have seen, of one clause in the Charter.

In 1297 the barons met in arms in London, while Edward was abroad in Flanders, and drew up a document called the *Confirmation of the Charters*. In this the Great Charter was again asserted, and a clause was added which forbade the raising of any money by feudal payments, or customs duties, or in any other way, without the grant of Parliament. The "power of the purse", as it has been called, was thus finally and fully placed in the hands of Parliament alone, and the sovereign gave up the right of taxing the people without their consent.

The barons sent this new law to the king in Flanders, and did not go to help him abroad in war until he had accepted, sealed, and signed it. In regard to the growth of parliamentary power, we may here notice that, under Edward II., it became settled that the members of the Commons—the county and borough members chosen by the people—must take part in the making of any new law.

Under Edward III. the Commons first sat apart from the Lords, and it was also arranged that no change

of words could be made by the sovereign in the bills, or proposals for new laws, sent to him by the Houses for assent. In the same reign the Commons gained the right of impeaching, or accusing before the Lords, evil counsellors or ministers of the king. The offenders, if they were condemned by the Lords, were then removed from office and otherwise punished. It thus became established, on the whole, that without the consent of Parliament no law could be made, no money raised by taxation, and no man kept in power by the sovereign.

We must now see how Edward conducted war, as he strove to bring all the territory within the four seas—the Atlantic, the German Ocean, the English Channel, and the Irish Sea—under his dominion. He first turned his attention to Wales, the previous history of which country had been marked by continual troubles with England. Soon after the Conquest, Norman barons received lands and built castles in the south of that wild country. John waged warfare in the north with some success against a prince named Llewellyn, who was at the head of a league of chiefs which aimed at asserting their complete independence of English rule.

Twice John marched to the foot of Snowdon, but he was unable to get to close quarters with the enemy, and was obliged to retreat on the first occasion by the bad weather and by want of food for his men. On the second attempt Llewellyn made a sort of submission, and gave hostages to keep the peace, but the Welshmen rose again when John was at war with his barons. Edward I, before he came to the throne, had fought another Llewellyn on the border, and then he had the worst of the encounter.

After the English prince had been driven back, the



Welsh ravaged the land over the border, and De Montfort, a few years later, was engaged against these plunderers.

In 1275 the people were in a barbarous state. Most of them were herdsmen who lived on the milk and flesh of their horned cattle, sheep, and goats, and clothed themselves in their skins. They were divided into numerous clans or tribes, waging cruel and treacherous warfare with each other.

The Welsh had, however, a strong national spirit, which was kept constantly alive by their poets or bards, singing to the music of the harp patriotic songs of great beauty and power. At the time with which we are dealing, the Llewellyn against whom Edward had fought held a leading position as "Prince of Wales", having received the submission of many of the other chieftains. He refused to attend at Edward's coronation and do "homage", although he had promised "fealty" to Henry III. towards the end of his reign.

EDWARD THE FIRST.—III.

(1277-1284)

In 1277 Edward marched into North Wales with an army and took the castles of Flint and Rhuddlan, putting in garrisons to keep them. The coast was guarded by a fleet, and all supplies of provisions were cut off by sea. Llewellyn had not a force sufficient to meet the English in the open field, and the king's advance drove him into the Snowdon mountains. Every road and pathway was guarded by the troops, and thus the Welsh prince and his men, as winter came on, were forced by hunger to surrender.

A treaty was made, giving up the country as far as

the river Conway, and Llewellyn was to rule the district of Snowdon and the Isle of Anglesea, with the title of "Prince of Wales", which was to cease at his death. In 1282 Llewellyn, who was married to the king's cousin Eleanor, daughter of Simon de Montfort, revolted. He was joined by his brother David. Hawarden Castle, in Flintshire, was taken by surprise, and the people of North Wales were soon in arms.

Then Edward again took the field, sternly resolved to make a speedy and complete end of trouble from the Welsh. A force of mountaineers from the Pyrenees, between France and Spain, was in his army. These men were swift of foot, expert climbers, and accustomed to all the difficulties and hardships of hill-fighting. They were able to go where the English, men from a level country, and heavy-armed soldiers, could not make their way, and Llewellyn and his men were driven up into the farthest recesses of the Snowdon group of mountains.

The English king still needed more men to shut the Welsh in on every side, and he sent for a new army to his barons in South Wales. Llewellyn went thither, leaving his brother David in command in the north. He was surprised or betrayed, and fell fighting bravely in a skirmish in the valley of the Wye. His head was cut off and sent to Edward, who caused it, crowned with a wreath of ivy, to be set up on the walls of the Tower of London. This was done in mockery of a prophecy said to have been uttered in ancient times by a Welshman named Merlin.

This man had declared, that when English money was made round, a Prince of Wales should be crowned in London. Many of the Welsh had joined in the struggle

because they believed the prophet's words and hoped for success to their arms. English money had become round, because Edward, in his care for the people, had issued a new copper coinage to meet the want which had caused them to cut the silver pennies into halves and quarters.

For six months after the fall of his brother, David escaped capture, but he was hunted about from one retreat to another. At last he was betrayed into the hands of the English, tried as a traitor before Parliament at Shrewsbury in 1283, condemned and put to death. The other chiefs laid down their arms, and this was the end of Welsh independence. The conqueror used his power with wisdom and prudence. There is no truth whatever in a story about his massacre of Welsh bards. The king was anxious to win the loyal attachment of the people to himself and his family.

He promised the chieftains that they should have as a ruler "a prince born in Wales, who could speak never a word of English, and who never did wrong to man, woman, or child." This new Welsh prince was his own second son, Edward, born at Caernarvon in April, 1284. The chieftains did homage to the baby, as Queen Eleanor held him in her arms, and, on the death, soon afterwards, of his elder brother Alfonso, he became his father's heir, and was invested with the dignity and title of "Prince of Wales", since generally given to the eldest son of the sovereign.

Wales was now annexed to England, partly divided into the present counties, and placed mainly under English laws, judges, sheriffs, and courts, with some regard to old Welsh customs and law. Charters were given to some of the towns, and trade and commerce were in

every way encouraged. Strong castles arose at Conway, Caernarvon, and elsewhere, to check any attempts at revolt, and the Welsh people, with a large number of English settlers in some parts, led henceforth, as a rule, a peaceable life. Under Henry VIII. new shires were made, and the counties and some towns sent members to the House of Commons.

EDWARD THE FIRST.—IV.

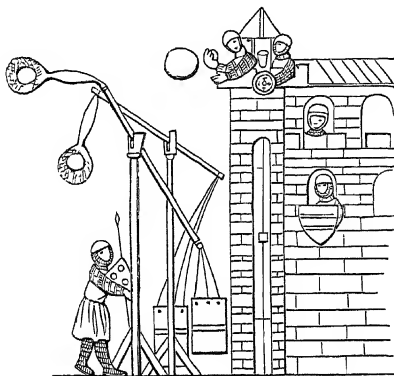
(1290-1297)

We must now deal with the English king's attack on Scotland. Most of the people to the south and many to the north of the Firth of Forth, were of the same race as the English. Before the Norman Conquest, the cession of Lothian, formerly ruled by English kings, had made Scottish territory extend towards the Tweed. Early in the thirteenth century the boundary-line between England and Scotland had been settled almost as it now exists. In 1290 the death of the little Scottish queen, Margaret, left the throne vacant, and many claimants at once arose.

Out of thirteen there were three who had a fair show of right, and the Scottish Estates, or Parliament, in order to prevent a civil war, asked Edward to decide. He gave his award in favour of John Baliol, who did homage to Edward as his overlord. Baliol, after his coronation, was so annoyed by Edward's requiring his attendance in London, on appeals from the Scottish to English courts, that he determined to renounce his allegiance to him. He began to look abroad for help,

and formed an alliance with France, with which country England was then at war.

In the early spring of 1296 the English king crossed the Tweed with a great army of horse and foot. The fate of the town of Berwick was a dreadful one. The



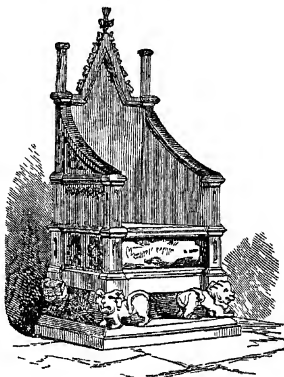
Engine for Throwing Stones, used at the Siege of Berwick —From an Old Manuscript

place was then of great importance, with a harbour whose custom-dues amounted to a fourth of those paid in all English ports together. The capture of the town by storm was attended by a massacre of thousands of the citizens, and by plundering which completely ruined Berwick, and made it, as it remains, a small local port.

Nothing could resist the advance of the invaders. The Scots were defeated before Dunbar, and the fortress there, and Roxburgh Castle, were taken. Edinburgh Castle was besieged, Stirling was given up by the flight of the garrison, none being left behind but the porter of the

castle, who handed over the keys. In July, at Montrose, Baliol surrendered, begging for mercy, and handing over his realm to Edward's rule. The victor brought back to England the Scottish crown and sceptre, and carried away from Scone, in Perthshire, the famous sacred "stone of destiny".

This piece of rock was declared to be the one that formed Jacob's pillow when he saw his vision of angels in the wilderness, and it was said to have been prophesied that "where that holy stone is found, Scottish kings shall e'er be crowned". This venerable relic, on which the Scottish kings had always sat for coronation, as they have sat over it since 1603, is now to be seen in Westminster Abbey. It lies



Coronation Chair, Westminster Abbey,
containing the Stone from Scone

in a recess beneath the seat of the chair on which, for ages past, the English sovereigns have taken their place for the anointing and crowning that follow accession to the throne.

Edward's "conquest of Scotland" had thus been little more than the triumphal march of a foe that none could resist. He received at Berwick the homage of bishops, barons, and knights. The castles, crown, and sceptre of Scotland were his, but the end was not yet. He had done nothing to win the hearts of a proud and brave people, for whom a leader was now about to arise in

William Wallace, one of the most famous of all patriots and popular heroes. This Scottish knight was a man of great strength of body and skill in war.

In September, 1297, he took the field near Stirling, and posted his men on the hills to the north of the river. The English governor, Earl de Warenne, advanced with a great host over the narrow bridge, and was attacked by the Scots when only a part of his men were across, and before they could form on the other side. Utter confusion ended in the complete defeat of the English. Thousands were forced into the river and drowned, thousands were cut down, and De Warenne fled to Berwick.

Wallace then ravaged the border country, and made his way to Newcastle-on-Tyne, returning to retake Stirling Castle, and to assume the guardianship of the kingdom for the deposed John Baliol. It was, however, impossible for the Scottish hero to hold out against the power of such a king as Edward. It was his work to have aroused the spirit of resistance which, at a later day, was to have complete success.

THE END OF EDWARD THE FIRST.—EDWARD THE SECOND

(1298-1328)

The Scottish nobles had as yet given little or no help in the struggle for freedom, and Wallace's army was mostly composed of footmen. In June, 1298, Edward again entered Scotland, with a mighty host, chiefly of mail-clad horsemen and skilful archers. He was now in

his sixtieth year, and his terrible energy is shown by the fact that he persisted in leading his army to battle after two of his ribs had been broken by a fall from his horse. When the armies met at Falkirk in July, Wallace drew up his men in four great masses, armed with long spears, presenting on all sides a bristling array of points.

It was only thus that he could hope to resist the horsemen. The most desperate charges of Edward's cavalry were again and again driven back, and it seemed that the English king had at last met more than his match. But the Scottish formation, strong for defence at close quarters, was useless against missile weapons. Edward ordered his archers to the front, and they fired deadly showers of shafts into the packed array of the Scots. The spearmen fell by hundreds, and it was impossible to fill up the gaps.

The horsemen then rushed in at the openings, and the battle soon ended in a rout in which Wallace barely escaped capture. Warfare still continued for some years, during which little is known of the movements of the Scottish hero. On one occasion Edward's army was obliged to retreat from famine, but in 1303 he again entered Scotland with a force that none could resist, and a fleet, carrying large supplies of food, followed his movements near the shore.

By the spring of 1304 the south of the country was subdued, and in the following year Wallace, taken by treachery, was carried to London, and put to death as a "traitor". This he certainly never was, for he had never sworn allegiance to Edward. In 1306, Robert Bruce, grandson of the Bruce who was formerly one of the chief claimants of the crown, was in the field, aiming

at the Scottish throne, and was crowned in March as king at Scone. He lost a battle in June, at Methven, in Perthshire, and was soon afterwards forced to take refuge for the winter in Rathlin Isle, off the north coast of Ireland.

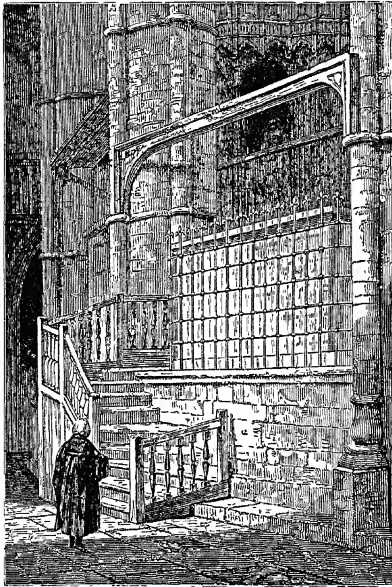
In the spring of 1307 Bruce was again in arms, and defeated the Earl of Pembroke at Loudon Hill. Edward heard of the new revolt with the deepest rage, and, in spite of failing health, started again for Scotland. He lay long ill on the road, but at last reached Carlisle, and there he managed once more to mount his war-horse. This effort was too much for his now feeble frame, and early in July, 1307, in sight of Scotland, he drew his last breath at Burgh-on-Sands.

He left orders to his son that the flesh should be stripped from his bones, and that the skeleton should be carried in front of the army until Scotland was subdued. The new king, Edward II., after going from London to receive the homage of some of the Scottish barons, sent his father's body to Westminster, where it was buried with the inscription, "Here lies the hammer of the Scots".

We may finish the story of English and Scottish warfare by a reference to events under the two next kings. The weak and worthless Edward II., soon involved in trouble with his barons, made no serious effort until June, 1314, when he marched from Berwick, with 100,000 men, to raise the Scottish siege of Stirling. Near to that town, on the famous field of Bannockburn, he was utterly defeated by Robert Bruce.

This was the victory that made Scotland a nation. Bruce captured Berwick in 1318, and held it against English efforts by land and sea. In January, 1327,

Edward II. was deposed by Parliament, and in the following September he was murdered in Berkeley Castle, with the consent of his wife Isabella and by



Tomb of Edward I, Westminster Abbey

orders of Roger Mortimer, one of the barons whom she favoured. In 1328 the Treaty of Northampton declared the full independence of the Scottish kingdom, which remained a separate country till the accession of James VI. (of Scotland) gave a king to England with the title of James I., and thus united the two crowns.

THE RISE OF THE PEOPLE.—I

(1327–1381.)

We shall now trace the mode in which, after the Norman Conquest, the labouring class slowly gained freedom from what was really a state of slavery. Under the rule of the Norman kings, the labourers, called “villeins”, or “dwellers on estates”, were, in their persons and their goods, the property of masters. They could be sold with the land, and be beaten or put in prison at the will of their lords. Some of these bondsmen became free by running away. Owing to the want of roads it was not easy to trace or follow such runaways, who thus became free workers in the service of other masters.

The clergy did what they could for the serfs or slaves, and often persuaded a lord on his death-bed to set all his men free by his will. There was also a law that made all villeins into freemen, if they lived for a year and a day in a town. When any of them were engaged for a long time in war, as during the Crusades, freedom was the reward for their services. Others bought their freedom with money earned by working overtime, or by skilful labour in a craft or trade. Thus by a silent steady growth a free class of workers arose in the country.

During the reign of Edward III., in 1348, a dreadful plague, called the *Black Death*, fell upon England. It was due to the ignorance of an age when people knew little of the true means for keeping the body in health, and were careless about the purity of the air they breathed and the water they drank. When the

disease, brought from the East across Europe, reached the British Isles, it raged for two years in country and town. Nearly half the people died. The living were scarcely able to bury the dead, and the crops were left to rot on the ground for want of hands to cut them.

The land-owners could not get their work done, and those labourers who remained alive asked higher wages. The lords then got a law passed making the men work for the same pay as before the *Black Death*. The workers, however, would only labour for those who paid them best, and then Parliament strove to enforce the old laws binding each man to work on certain lands. The workmen were not to leave their own parishes, and many of those who had run away were brought back from the towns.

The discontent thus caused rose to its height early in the days of Richard II., who reigned from 1377 to 1399. The main cause of trouble was a new poll-tax, or head-payment, of twelve pence on every person over fifteen years of age. The sum was as much then, in real value or power to purchase food or clothing, as a pound would be now, and the workmen gathered in bands in all parts of the country.

At the village of Dartford, in the north-west of Kent, in 1381, a man named Walter, whose trade was the tiling of houses, became the leader of a revolt. From his occupation he is known in history as Wat Tyler. He killed one of the tax-gatherers who had insulted his daughter. The people rose in a body, and marched to Blackheath on their way to London. In the capital the men of Kent were to meet those of Essex and Hertfordshire, so that many thousands were gathered, rudely

armed with heavy sticks or clubs, bows and arrows, pitchforks, and rusty swords.

The working people inside the city opened the gates



Wat Tyler slays the Tax-collector

and let in the mob, who broke open prisons and burned the houses of people whom they hated. The Archbishop of Canterbury was taken and beheaded, with other men in power, and the Savoy Palace, in the Strand, was burned. The young king, Richard II., then sixteen years

of age, boldly met the rioters at Smithfield, an open place near London, and was able to persuade them, by promises (which, however, were not kept), to disperse to their homes. But Wat Tyler was killed by a blow from the dagger of the lord-mayor, who supposed, from a hasty movement of Tyler's, that he had designs on the life of the king

An army was then raised, and the people were put to death in thousands, in order to strike terror into men's hearts for the future. The workers were, however, the real winners in the end. They had shown that they could act together in a common cause, and the nobles and other owners quickly gave up all attempts to interfere with freedom of labour.

JOHN WYCLIF.

It was about this time that the great Englishman lived and worked and wrote who became famous for all after-time as John Wyclif.

John Wyclif (Wiclif or Wycliffe) was born about 1325, of a Yorkshire family living in a manor-house on their estate near Richmond, in the wooded valley of the river Tees. Little is known of his life in earlier years, and we first find him with certainty as Master of Baliol College, Oxford, in 1361. Already widely famed for his learning, surrounded by a body of earnest scholars by whom he was admired and revered, Wyclif zealously took the side of his country in opposing the claim of the pope to an annual tribute from England. This claim was founded, as you will

remember, on the acknowledgment of the pope as feudal superior by King John.

As the controversy proceeded, the difference between Wyclif's teaching and the teaching of his opponents became more and more marked.

He angered the clergy by declaring that the property in their hands was held by them only in trust for the good of the poor, and that, if they misused their wealth, the state might take it from them. He alarmed both the clergy and many others by teaching that the Bible was the one ground of faith, and that the Gospel alone was enough as a rule of life for any Christian.

Wyclif also attacked, in his later days, some of the special doctrines, as well as the practices, of churchmen. It was by his denial of papal rights in England, and by his bidding all men to examine the Bible for themselves, that he chiefly excited the wrath of the great English churchmen of his day. By writing many tracts, whose clear and homely words taught his views to the mass of the people, and, above all, by his translation of the Bible into English, a translation which enabled ploughmen, weavers, and other unlearned men to read the Word of God in their own tongue, he became the "Father of English Prose". He found an ardent disciple in John Huss of Bohemia, whose spirit and teaching greatly influenced Luther.

It is for this reason that he has been called "The Morning Star of the Reformation", as his teaching, though indirectly, led to the change of religion which took place under Edward VI. and Elizabeth. Several attempts were made to bring Wyclif to trial on a charge of heresy; but, supported by the influence and authority of the

Duke of Lancaster, he was able either to evade or to defy his enemies. The work of the "poor" or "simple" priests, his followers, who went throughout the country teaching his views, had a great social as well as religious effect. It must be borne in mind that Wyclif was also a great social and political reformer.

The "Peasants' Revolt" in June, 1381, brought about an alliance between the clergy and the nobles. Wyclif, as a supporter of the cause of the "poor", was regarded as a common enemy. His opinions were condemned by the theologians of the University of Oxford, and an ordinance was passed by the House of Lords alone against the itinerant preachers. That Wyclif's influence was still great among the laity is shown by the fact that this ordinance was annulled, on the petition of the Commons, in the following autumn.

Wyclif withdrew to his rectory of Lutterworth, and spent the short remainder of his life in writing numerous tracts in Latin and English on the subjects under dispute. On the 28th of December, 1384, a second stroke of paralysis finally prostrated him, and he died on New-year's Eve.

His followers, called by those opposed to them Lollards, which means "mumblers of prayers", suffered much persecution in the times that immediately followed. But this was partly due to the fact that they had political and social ideas which were distasteful to the ruling class.

GEOFFREY CHAUCER.—I.

(1340–1400.)

Geoffrey Chaucer, one of the greatest of English poets, was born, probably about 1340, in Thames Street, London, where his father, Richard (or John) Chaucer, had a flourishing business as a wine merchant and tavern-keeper. Of his early life little is certainly known. It seems from his works that he must have been well taught, and that he studied carefully at school, and he may have been a student at Cambridge University. In 1357 he was introduced at court, by favour of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, and became a page in the service of Elizabeth, wife of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, third son of the king, Edward III. The handsome lad, with his graceful figure, and a fair complexion in a face marked by lips of cherry red, soon won his way into the king's own household.

We find him writing short poems for his patron John of Gaunt, and in 1359 he entered the field of war, serving in France under Edward III. That sovereign sailed from England in October with the largest and best army that had been raised in this country for many years. The campaign, however, was not successful. After failing in the siege of Rheims, Edward's host advanced on Paris. The suburbs of the city were burnt, but the English then suffered so severely from famine that they were forced to retreat with all haste into Brittany, leaving a track of dead on the way. In Brittany the young soldier Chaucer was taken prisoner by the enemy. He must have stood well in the esteem of his sovereign at

this time, for we find Edward contributing a considerable amount to the ransom which obtained his freedom.

The war was ended in May, 1360, by the Peace of Bretigny, and for the next seven years we lose sight of Chaucer. He again appears, in 1367, as "one of the yeoman of the king's chamber", with a life-pension of twenty silver marks, a sum equal to about £150 at the present day. In the spring and summer of 1370, the poet was abroad on the king's service, and in 1372 and the following year he was travelling in Italy. He visited Genoa, Pisa, and Florence, as a commissioner appointed to make a commercial treaty with the first of those Italian republics. His services were rewarded by a sum of money, and by the grant, in April, 1374, of a daily pitcher of wine, to be received in London from the king's butler.

Two months later, through John of Gaunt's good-will, Chaucer was appointed to the post of Comptroller of the Customs for wool, skins, and tanned hides in the port of London. All this varied life and experience, at home and abroad, gave him insight into men and affairs which he ably used in his literary work. Other gifts and appointments from John of Gaunt and from the Crown made the poet a wealthy man at this time. In 1386, under Richard II., Chaucer reached his highest position as a citizen, sitting in Parliament as one of the members



Geoffrey Chaucer

for Kent. His poetical works had now made him known throughout the land.

He was well read in French and Italian, and his earlier work was mainly composed of translation from those languages. His *Death of Blanche the Duchess* or *The Book of the Duchess*, produced in 1369, laments the decease of John of Gaunt's first wife, and celebrates her as a model of womanly grace and of wedded love. As he advanced towards middle life, he showed, in *Troilus and Cressida*, a new freedom of expression, derived from the close study of the great Italian writers in poetry and prose, such as Dante, Petrarch, and Boccaccio. The *House of Fame* was a brilliant display of imaginative power, and the *Legend of Good Women* showed the high esteem for womanly truth and purity felt by the poet. He there declares that, of all the flowers that bloom, he loves, and ever will love, the Daisy best.

In his later years, between 1386 and his death in October, 1400, the poet suffered much in his money affairs. At the close of 1386, for some unknown reason, he was deprived of his valuable offices in the Customs, and he only held for two years his appointment, in 1389, as Clerk of the King's Works at Westminster and elsewhere. He does not seem to have been a thrifty man; nothing had been saved "against a rainy day". He was preserved for some time against imprisonment for debt by special royal "protection-orders", and was only kept from severe distress by a pension granted, in 1394, by Richard the Second. The next king, Henry the Fourth, son of John of Gaunt, doubled this allowance, in October, 1399, and enabled the poet to pass in comfort his few remaining months of life.

GEOFFREY CHAUCER —II.

It is the *Canterbury Tales*, a great unfinished work, that has given Chaucer his very high place among English poets. He was employed upon this, at intervals, for many years of his life. The wise, shrewd, and humorous author, with forked beard, moustache, a face of kindly cunning, a portly frame, and pleasant manners, has herein displayed a wonderful power of insight into human character, and a great knowledge of the human heart. In all our literature, Shakespeare alone, the greatest of all poets, has surpassed him in this respect. The joyous freedom of his verse is fully as pleasant to the modern reader as it can have been to those whom it delighted five hundred years ago.

In this and in other works Chaucer sets before us in the clearest way the manners, dress, and way of life of English men and women living in his age. In the *Canterbury Tales*, we are told how a party of pilgrims, intending to ride to the tomb of Saint Thomas (Becket) of Canterbury, assembles at one of the inns on the Southwark side of London Bridge. The tavern whence the pilgrims start is called the "Tabard", having its name and sign from the sleeveless coat then worn by labouring men. A few years ago there stood on the same spot as the "Tabard" of Chaucer's day an inn called the "Talbot". The pilgrims, including the poet himself, number thirty-one, and have among them persons of nearly all classes of English society.

A knight and his son are attended by a yeoman, or farmer of his own land, in "coat and hood of green", with

his sheaf of arrows and a mighty bow. He has on his breast a silver image of St. Christopher, the patron of field-sports, and is a specimen of the bold race of men that helped to win the battles of Crécy and Poitiers. He and his fellows, in hours of leisure, were shooting at the



The Tabard Inn, Southwark

butts on every common in England, while the French peasantry, disliking manly exercises, were playing at dice and draughts like their lords. The "ploughman" in the poem is really the small farmer, a man of "goods and chattels", no longer at the bidding of a feudal lord.

The "franklin" is the esquire of the time, holding land by tenancy under the crown. He is a great householder, whose hospitality is so generous that "it snowed in his house of meat and drink", meaning that good things to eat and drink were as abundant as snow in winter.

He was a public man, as a "knight of the shire", or county member of the House of Commons, and came just below the knight in rank. The sergeant-at-law is a man of impressive deportment and wise words; the physician is dressed in bright purple cloak with a furred hood. The church is represented by an Oxford "clerk" or clergyman; a prioress, or lady at the head of a nunnery, a monk and a friar; a "sompnour", or man who summons offenders before the church-courts; and a "pardoner", or dealer in pardons brought from Rome.

One of the party is a manciple of one of the Inns of Court, or bodies of lawyers, in London. This person was a kind of house-steward, who bought provisions for the use of the gentlemen whom he served. A fine portrait is seen in "the poor parson of a town", "rich of holy thought and work", patient, gentle to sorrowful sinners, but sharp with the obstinate ill-doer. He was a man who "taught the lore (doctrine) of Christ and the Apostles, but first he followed it himself". The "wife of Bath", one of the liveliest of the group, was a maker of cloth, having many customers. She wears a head-dress of the finest quality, and scarlet stockings.

The fantastic men's dress of the day is shown in the knight's son, who has been with his father to the wars. He now has his hair well curled, and wears a short gown which has long wide sleeves, and is embroidered with white and red flowers "as (if) it were a mead". Among the characters are a merchant, in his beaver hat from Flanders, and a "shipman" or sailor, in a tunic of coarse cloth, with a dagger or short sword hung by a lace about his neck and under his arm. The handicrafts of the time are represented by a haberdasher, or seller of small

drapery goods; a carpenter, a weaver, a dyer, and a maker of tapestry, or hangings in wool and silk worked in carpet-patterns

Each is clothed in the livery or special dress of his craft-guild or trading company, and wears at his girdle



Canterbury Pilgrims — From an old Manuscript

a knife mounted with silver. They have goods and rent enough to be aldermen, a rank which their wives long for the husbands to reach, in the hope of being called "Madam". There is a miller, big and bony, one who "could well steal corn"; the landlord of the *Tabard*, Harry Bailly, a "right merry man", and the poet himself. After a good supper at the inn, the host proposes that each pilgrim should tell two tales on the way as they ride to Canterbury, and two more on the way home.

The work, as we have stated, is left unfinished, but twenty-four tales are given, two of them in prose. In these we have a number of pictures of middle-class

English life during the fourteenth century. Our ancestors are brought before us in the liveliest fashion, and the beauty, power, and skill of these paintings done in words fully justify the title given to Chaucer of "Father of English Poetry". The man who drew them lies buried in the south aisle of Westminster Abbey, among other famous dead, and was described by Spenser, who lies near him, as a "well of English undefiled, On Fame's eternal beadroll worthy to be filed".

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR (1337-1453).—I.

EDWARD THE THIRD, 1327-1377, RICHARD THE SECOND, 1377-1399, HENRY THE FIFTH, 1413-1422; HENRY THE SIXTH, 1422-1461.

The attempt to conquer France is called the "Hundred Years' War" because, except for the reign of Henry IV., which lasted from 1399 to 1413, there was very little peace between the two countries during that period. Edward III. was a man of great ambition and energy, able in civil affairs, and of much skill and courage in war. His rule over nobles and people was generally firm and successful, and he enjoyed, for most of his reign, the love and esteem of the nation. In his last years, after the death of his queen, Philippa, in 1369, he fell into a weak state of body and mind, and there was some misrule under the influence of his son, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster.

The House of Commons, as we have seen, grew in power during this reign, and some useful laws were made to protect the liberty of subjects against the sovereign, and also to maintain the rights of Englishmen,

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.

in church affairs, against the pope. Until 1351, if any man went against the wishes of the king, his speech and action could be called "treason", because it was not

clearly laid down in any law what was meant by that terrible word. A subject might thus be condemned and put to death, his titles and property forfeited, and his family reduced to beggary, because he opposed a king who was breaking the laws.



Edward the Third —From the Painted Chamber, Westminster

The *Statute of Treasons*, made in 1351, settled that no man could be charged with the offence unless he had planned the king's death; or made war against him within the kingdom, or given help to the king's open enemies at home or abroad; or forged the great or privy seal; or killed the chancellor,

or killed the chancellor, or any of the king's higher judges when they were engaged in official duties. In the same year, the *Statute of Provisors* forbade any application to be made to the pope for the appointment of any man to a benefice or church-office in England. In other ways the new law secured the rights of English patrons, or those who had the right of appointing men to livings or other posts in the church.

It was in 1337 that Edward took the title of King of France, and prepared to invade the country. He had no right whatever to the French throne, and it is likely that he claimed it in order to give the people of Flanders an excuse for helping him in the war. They were bound, under feudal law, to side with the French king, Philip II^d, but if Edward were king of France, then they became his servants in warlike affairs. The English king's real reason for quarrelling with France was the help which that country had lately given to Scotland in her struggle against England.

The great English nation was now fully formed, and was about to show its strength and courage on fields of foreign warfare. The islanders whom Norman barons and knights had once despised were to cross the sea, and, with their long shafts, shot with piercing power from bows of native yew, they were to effect for a time the conquest of France. All that was won was afterwards lost, and great misery was caused to the people of France in the long and unjust contest.

The Hundred Years' War, however, had very important effects both upon the art and practice of war, and upon the liberties of the English people. The foot-soldier for the first time showed himself more than a match for the man on horseback. The archers, in their leathern jackets, kept up volleys which piled the ground with the bodies of the steeds and their riders, the barons and knights and men-at-arms.

The yeomen or small land-owners, and the peasants or tillers of the soil, who carried the bow in battle, from that time had no fear of the nobles, who had been in Norman days the tyrants and oppressors of conquered

Englishmen. They had learnt their own strength and value, they knew the power of their own right arms to resist the attacks and to curb the spirit of baron and king. In the Wat Tyler revolt the peasants allowed themselves to be deceived; with a proper leader, they could have conquered the country from end to end. In Tudor days, long after the great French war had ceased, the people themselves, when they took up arms, made Henry VIII. at once give way.

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.—II.

The first great battle was fought with ships off the coast of the country now called Belgium. The harbour of Sluys, where the French king had gathered a great fleet, has long been filled up with sand, and the retiring sea has left the little town some miles inland, southward from the mouth of the river Scheldt. Edward set sail in 1340 with a powerful armament from Orwell, on the Suffolk coast, and went straight across to attack the foe. The English archers drove the enemy from their decks, and then the men-at-arms boarded and captured the ships. In this way, after a fight of many hours, and after the slaughter of many thousands of the enemy, over two hundred vessels, or more than half the fleet, were taken.

The famous battle of Crecy, in the north of France, was fought on August 26th, 1346, in front of the village so called. The ground there rises gently into a broad ridge, on which Edward posted his men, while he himself watched the fight from a windmill on the highest point.

His right was commanded by the Prince of Wales, his eldest son, Edward, called the Black Prince from the colour of his armour. He was then only sixteen years of age, but he fought as became one who was to be the chief hero of those days.

When he was hard pressed by the enemy his father would not send help, but said "Let the lad win his spurs", meaning the honour of knighthood, a rank shown by wearing golden spurs. There was a vast difference in number between the French and English forces. The English king had landed, above six weeks before, near Cape la Hogue, in Normandy, and his fleet had been sent home laden with prisoners and plunder. He then marched northwards for Calais to meet an army of Flemings, and was cut off at Crecy by King Philip of France, at the head of 100,000 men.



Edward the Black Prince —From the Painted Chamber, Westminster

To meet this great host, Edward had but 8000 archers and men-at-arms, or mailed horsemen, with a few thousand Welsh and Irish foot. The battle began at five o'clock in the evening, as the sun shone brightly out after a storm of thunder and rain, full in the eyes of the French, and on the backs of the English. The English archers had kept their bows in the cases while the rain

continued, and the strings were dry and tightly drawn. The Italian cross-bowmen on the French side were almost helpless from the effect of the rain upon their strings, and their shafts came feebly and did little damage.



The well-aimed volleys of the Englishmen made dreadful havoc among the enemy. When disorder arose among the men and horses, the archers drew their "bills", or small hatchets, and went to close quarters, while the light-armed Welsh and Irish dashed in with their knives.

The French sustained an utter defeat. The king's brother and many other nobles, with knights by hundreds, and thousands of foot-soldiers, lay dead on the ground. On the side of the victors, a few hundreds only were killed and wounded.

This grand success, which struck terror into French hearts, was followed by the capture of Calais. The town, after a year's siege, was compelled by famine to surrender in August, 1347. The place remained in English possession for more than two hundred years, being held as a Channel port and a door of entrance into France. Edward made many inhabitants leave the place, and settled there an English trading colony, who erected great storehouses for wool and leather, lead and tin, the chief articles with which we then traded in continental markets.

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.—III

(1355–1374.)

The events in England during this period, the *Black Death* and the various new laws introduced, have been already noticed. There was no serious warfare for some years in France, where Philip, on his death in 1350, was succeeded as king by his son, John the Good. In 1355 Edward was again in the field, his troops ravaging the country in the north and south. In the following year, 1356, the Black Prince fought and won the great battle of Poitiers, in the west of France. At the head of a small force of 12,000 men he had marched out from his headquarters at Bordeaux. After laying waste some of the richest and most fertile provinces of France, he was

returning laden with booty, when he was intercepted, on September 19th, by an army of 60,000 men.

Nothing but victory, capture, or death lay before the English leader and his men, but it was just the occasion for the display of a general's skill. There is no advantage in numbers if they have not room to fight, and the Black Prince saw how to make good use of the ground. He drew up his men on three low hills, where his front was protected by thick hedges. The enemy could get at him only by coming up a long narrow lane between two of these hills, which were covered with vineyards. The English bowmen lined the hedges on each side, and they poured deadly volleys of arrows into the ranks of the French horsemen as they strove to force their way, four abreast, up the lane.

The road was soon blocked for the main body of the French army, and those who reached the open ground were charged by the Black Prince at the head of a picked force. The enemy, after suffering great losses, were in a state of confusion, when a body of English horse and archers, detached for the purpose, fell furiously on their flank and rear. A panic set in, several of the French commanders fled, and the battle ended with the capture of King John and his young son, Philip. Over 10,000 of the French fell in the battle, and 2000 prisoners were taken.

To France, after she had been desolated by an insurrection of French peasants, and by farther ravages of the victorious English troops, the Treaty of Bretigny, in 1360, brought peace for some years. Edward gave up his claim to the crown of France, and finally withdrew from Normandy, Anjou, Maine, and Touraine. He was to be full

sovereign of Guienne, Gascony, and much other territory in the south and west. John, the French king, died as a prisoner in London, when he could not raise the enormous sum demanded as his ransom.

In 1369 the war was renewed by his successor, Charles V. The Black Prince, governor of his father's territories in the south, had wasted his strength and resources, and alienated his subjects by heavy taxes imposed to meet the expenses of his war in Spain. His health, too, began to fail, and after his departure for England in 1371, the famous French warrior, Bertrand Du Guesclin, gained many successes in the war against the English. This man was the greatest hero of the time, next to the Black Prince, and in 1374, when a truce or short peace was made, Edward had no possessions left in France except the towns of Bordeaux and Bayonne, in the south-west, and Calais in the north.

Under Richard II., Du Guesclin, at St. Malo, on the north-west coast, repulsed an English attack and drove the assailants back to their ships. A French army was sent to help the Scots in their warfare against England, and the invaders ravaged Cumberland and Westmorland. In 1399, after much misrule, Richard was deposed by Parliament, and the throne was given to the first of the "Lancastrian kings", Henry IV., eldest son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster.

This sovereign was chiefly engaged with plots and rebellions in his own country. The Earl of Northumberland and his son, Henry Percy, surnamed Hotspur, were joined by Scots under the Earl of Douglas, and by Welshmen led by Owen Glendower. Henry IV. met the Scots and Percy's men near Shrewsbury, in July, 1403,

and gained a complete victory, Hotspur being killed and the Earl of Douglas captured. The young Prince of Wales, afterwards Henry V., fought with the utmost courage, and gave token of the warlike spirit which he was to display in full force as king.

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.—IV.

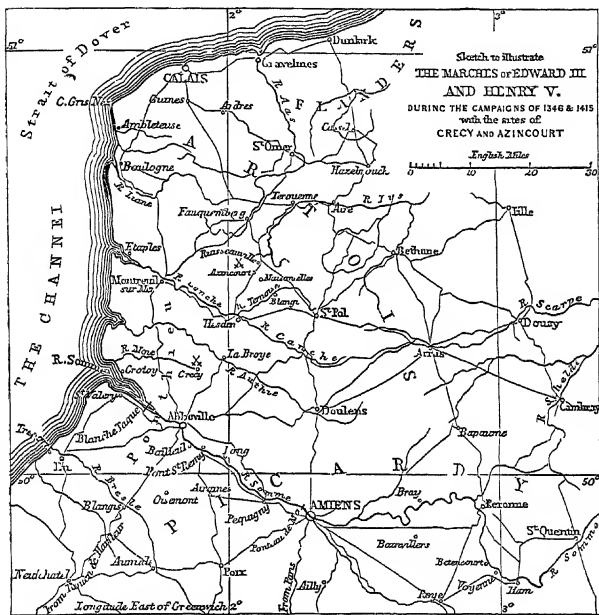
(1413-1415)

Henry V., becoming king in his twenty-fifth year, in 1413, soon renewed the war with France. He claimed the throne of that country as the lawful heir of Edward III. At that time the French were weakened by civil war. Their king, Charles VI., was "out of his mind", and the English sovereign, a most able general, saw a chance of conquest before him. In August, 1415, he left Southampton with a great fleet and army, and sailed for the mouth of the river Seine. The town of Harfleur was taken after a siege of five weeks, during which Henry lost thousands of men by disease.

His fine army of 6000 men-at-arms and 24,000 foot was reduced to 9000 men fit for service. In a spirit of boldness that seems like reckless folly, the English sovereign sent away his fleet, and resolved to march for Calais, defying the French to molest him. The fact was, that he dared not return to England and face his subjects with the poor remains of the splendid force that had followed him against the old enemy with the hope of complete success.

Like Edward III., the daring man found himself intercepted by a vastly superior force. On October 25th,

1415, he was met by over 50,000 men near Agincourt, only twenty miles from the field of English glory at Crecy. They were drawn up, on a narrow front, between two



forests, with most of the French nobles, and some thousands of knights and their esquires, or gentlemen-followers, in advance. The main body was too much crowded together to act with effect, and this gave Henry a great advantage in the battle.

He drew up his little force in one line, with men-at-

arms, or heavy cavalry, in the centre, and archers posted on the wings. The bowmen, by the king's orders, were each provided with a stake, or thick wooden paling, sharpened at each end, and so ready to plant in the ground when the enemy's horse were about to charge. Never did a thing which seemed so trifling prove to be of more value. After waiting some hours in vain for the French to come on, Henry ordered his men to advance. At a hundred yards' range, the volleys of arrows from the English archers galled the enemy into moving forward to their ruin.

The English bowmen halted, fixed their stakes firmly in the ground before them, so as to present a row of points to the charging horses, and then, stepping back a few paces, poured in volley after volley. The clayey ground was heavy from recent rain, and the French horses could not get into full speed. Those who came near were shot down or impaled on the stakes, and the front lines fell back in such disorder that they threw into confusion those in the rear. Henry seized the right moment, and fell on the foe with his mounted men.

Some of the archers, flinging away their bows, rushed on with sword and bill, while others, lining the French flanks, shot at the enemy thousands of arrows, of which not one could miss the crowded foe. The fiercest fighting was that between the French and English knights. Henry was in the thick of the struggle, and was once knocked down by a blow from a steel mace or club. He rose again, and then had the crown on his helmet split by the sword of the Duke of Alençon, a French noble of royal blood.

Henry's followers slew the duke, in spite of the king's

efforts to save him, and after three hours' fighting the French gave way in utter rout. Seven princes of the royal family had fallen, with above a hundred nobles, eight thousand of the French gentry, and some thousands of lower rank. The prisoners, including two royal dukes, were far more in number than the victors, who lost about 1600⁰ men.

The English king returned by way of Calais to Dover on November 17th, and was welcomed by a crowd, who rushed into the sea and carried their hero ashore in their arms. A few days later he made his entry into London, amidst a scene of rejoicing which surpassed all that the capital had ever shown before. Maidens and youths, from arches and towers erected for the occasion, strewed boughs of bay and leaves of beaten gold in the path of the conquering king. The gutters in the street ran with wine that flowed from the public conduits or water-pipes and from the fountains, and the air rang with shouts and joyful music.

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.—V.

(1415-1429)

Henry V. was the only English sovereign that ever conquered France. After a second invasion, with a great army, in 1417, he took Caen, Bayeux, and then Rouen, the capital of Normandy. In May, 1420, the *Treaty of Troyes* gave a complete triumph to the king. Under this settlement he married the French king's eldest daughter, Catharine. He became at once Regent of the French kingdom, and on the death of the insane Charles VI. he was to succeed him on the throne of

France. In November the two kings rode side by side into Paris, and the treaty was confirmed by the French Estates or Parliament.

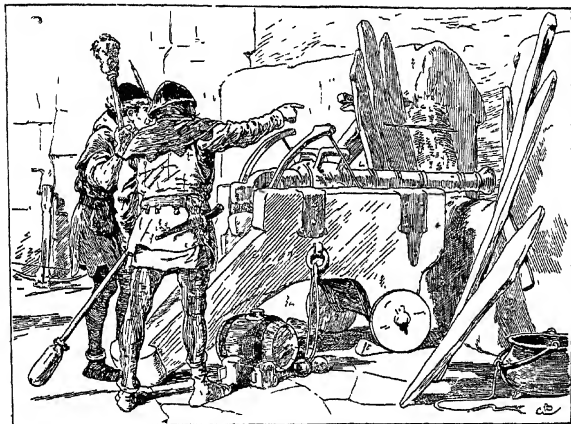
The English sovereign returned to London, where his queen was crowned, and then, in June, 1421, he landed at Calais with a new army. A Scottish force had arrived to help the French, and, in the battle of Beaujé, one of the king's brothers had been defeated and slain. Henry was soon again master of the country to the north of the Loire, but in August, 1422, his brief and, in a military sense, glorious career, was ended by disease at Vincennes, near Paris. He left an infant son to succeed him, and his brother John, Duke of Bedford, one of the best soldiers of that age, became Regent of the French dominions.

In two months after Henry's death, the French king, Charles VI., followed him to the grave, and his son and successor, Charles VII., set aside the Treaty of Troyes and claimed the throne. He held the country south of the Loire, and was crowned at Poitiers, while the child Henry was proclaimed "King of France and England", and his troops were in possession of the northern territory and of Paris. The Duke of Bedford, the infant king's uncle, gained several victories over the French and Scots, and in 1428 he was preparing to cross the Loire, and carry his arms into the south-west of France.

The siege of Orleans was the great turning-point in the struggle between the two countries. That town commanded the passage of the Loire, and was the key of southern France. If the place were taken by the English, the French might well fear that the complete conquest of their country would follow. The Earl of Salisbury, one of the bravest and most skilful of the English generals,

was chosen by Bedford to attack the town. In October, 1428, he appeared before the walls, and captured the works on the south side of the Loire.

The story of how France came safely out of her troubles is one of the strangest recorded in history. The



At the Siege of Orleans.

country was delivered from her foes mainly through a simple country-girl. At a village in the east of France a small farmer had a daughter, eighteen years of age, whose name was Jeanne Darc, known among the English as Joan of Arc. She was filled with pity when she heard of the misery of the people. She was of tall and powerful frame and of thoughtful mind, and when she drove the cattle to and from the pasture, she often dwelt on a saying that was then current, that a maid from Lorraine,

—the part of the country where she lived,—should deliver France from the English troops.

Then she thought that she saw, in her dreams, the angel Michael and some of the saints bidding her go to the King of France and promise to deliver the country, and to have him crowned at Rheims. In spite of the prayers and tears of her parents she started off, dressed as a soldier, and reached the presence of Charles. He listened to her tale, and, when he found that she was a true believer in the faith of the church and perfectly virtuous in her life, he accepted her offer of help.

This siege of Orleans was one of the first in which any great use was made of cannon. The English caused much loss to the defenders by a battery which, from their side of the river, fired down some of the chief streets. The hopes of the men of Orleans rose when two of the bravest French commanders arrived in the town with fresh troops, and the English general, Salisbury, died of a wound received from a cannon-ball. Their spirits fell again when the English, by the spring of 1429, shut in the town by a line of works, and tried to compel surrender through famine.

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.—VI.

(1429–1453)

It was at this time that the Maid of Orleans, as Joan was sometimes called, took the field at the head of the French troops, who fully believed that she was sent and supported by Divine command and power. In a new suit of white armour, and mounted on a gray war-horse,

with a lance in her right hand, she rode with uncovered head, displaying her fair features, deep-set, earnest eyes, and long black hair. A small battle-axe, and a consecrated sword, taken at her bidding from one of the shrines of St. Catharine, completed her equipment.

A page carried before her a banner of white satin, strewn with the lilies of France, and bearing the words "Jesus, Mary". The troops were delighted when they saw her comely figure, the skill with which she managed her horse, and her grace and ease in handling her weapons. The truth is that the young maid owed much of her success to natural powers of body, and to shrewdness of mind. She wisely left the commanders, who were skilled in war, to give orders for the movements of troops.

Her only leadership was to bid the soldiers go straight at the enemy, and then dash in boldly herself. In one point her good sense caused her to render excellent service to the French army. She made the soldiers observe strict discipline. All evil characters were driven from the camp, and officers and soldiers alike were made to attend to their religious duties. On the night of April 28th, amid a storm of thunder and rain, she entered Orleans with a force that took in fresh provisions.

Four days later, Joan went forth and brought in another body of troops and a new supply of food. The English kept within their works and made no attack. It seems certain that they, or many of their number, believed the Maid to be sent and helped by evil spirits, and in that age such a thought had great power over the hearts of men. The troops inside Orleans, often led by Joan, took by degrees the chief English forts round the town, and on May 8th the siege was given up.

From that time the end of the contest was sure. Town after town to the north of the Loire was taken by the French, and on July 17th Charles VII. was crowned in the cathedral at Rheims. At the king's side, by the high altar, stood the Maid with her victorious white banner. Her work was done; her promise was fulfilled; her country was saved; her fame was secure. Year after year, as the war went on, the English lost ground, though they sometimes had success against the French. In May, 1430, Joan was taken prisoner by some troops of the Duke of Burgundy, who was fighting on the English side.

After some months' imprisonment, she was given up for a large sum of money to the English at Rouen. She was tried by a French bishop, and condemned to be burnt as a heretic or unbeliever, and as a sorceress, or woman who had dealings with evil spirits. In May, 1431, she died by fire in the market-place at Rouen, on a spot now marked by a statue in her honour.

The death of the Duke of Bedford, and the alliance of the Duke of Burgundy with the King of France, were great blows to the English cause, but our commanders still fought stubbornly against the foe. By slow steps the country was won back by the French, and in 1450, after recovering Rouen, they deprived the English of their last hold on Normandy by the capture of Cherbourg. In 1453, by the defeat of the Earl of Shrewsbury at Chatillon, Guienne was lost to England, and in October of that year the war ended with the surrender of Bordeaux. The close of the Hundred Years' War, leaving Calais alone in English hands, ended our attempts at the conquest of France.

THE FIGHT FOR THE CROWN.—I.

HENRY THE SIXTH (1422-1455.)

Henry VI, who reigned from 1422 to 1461, cannot be said to have ever ruled at all. He was a gentle, harmless, and pious man, more fitted to be a monk than a king. He was a lover of learning, and is best known as the founder of the famous school now called Eton College. In affairs of state he was by turns under the control of his uncles and of his wife, whom he married in 1445. This lady, a French princess, Margaret of Anjou, was one of the ablest and most daring women of whom history makes mention.

She was one of the chief rulers of England for many years, contending with lawless and powerful nobles for the rights of her husband and of her only son, Prince Edward. In 1450 there was a rebellion headed by Jack Cade, a soldier who had served in the French wars. The insurgents, to the number of 20,000 men, from Surrey, Kent, and Sussex, assembled on Blackheath, to the east of London. They were chiefly labourers out of work, with many discharged "retainers" or servants of the great nobles, and soldiers no longer wanted in France.

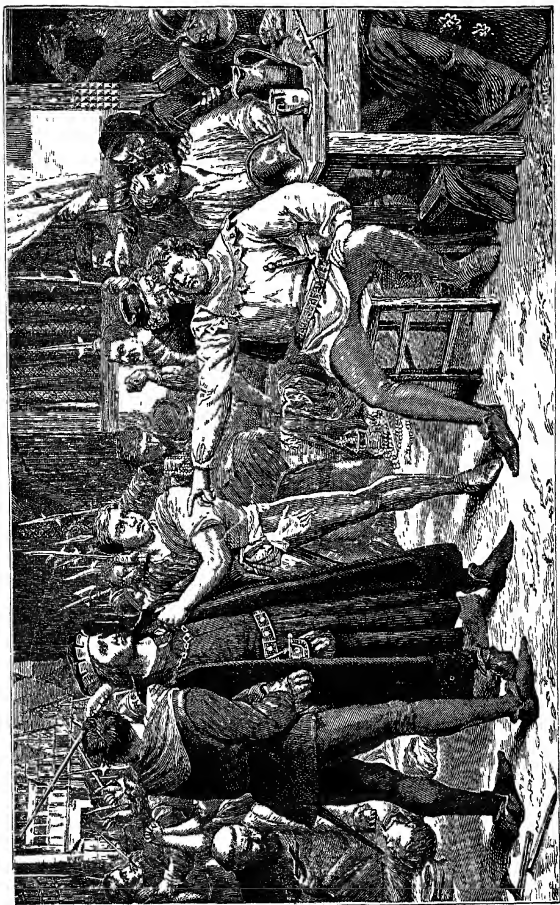
The rebels put forth a statement of grievances, complaining of bad government, heavy taxation, waste of money, and the loss of their right of electing members to the House of Commons. In 1430 the right of voting for county members was taken away from most of the peasants or poor tillers of the soil. Only those men could have a voice in electing representatives for the Commons who were "freeholders", or possessors of land to the

annual value of forty shillings, a sum equal to about £50 at the present day.

The vote for borough members had come into the hands of a small body of the burgesses or chief citizens, instead of being used by all freemen who paid the borough dues. The "common councillors" alone, in the towns, could choose the members of Parliament, and thus the great body of the people ceased to have a share in governing the country. The rebels at first had some success. They defeated a body of troops sent against them, and the king retired with the court to Kenilworth, to be safe in the strong castle which had belonged to Simon De Montfort.

Cade and his men marched on and entered London. Lord Say, one of the ministers, was taken by them and beheaded. When some of the rebels began to plunder, the citizens rose in arms, and there was a long and bloody fight for the possession of London Bridge. The citizens kept the bridge, and the insurgents, on receiving a promise of pardon, dispersed. Cade retired into Kent, where he was seized and executed by Sheriff Iden.

This rising had some connection with a dispute which had lately arisen concerning the right to the throne. The struggle which followed, and which lasted with intervals for many years, is called *The Wars of the Roses*. The story goes that, in June 1454, a party of nobles and gentlemen were walking in a garden on the banks of the Thames in London. It was a hot, bright day in the "month of roses", and the flowers were gay like the rich bright dress then worn by the great. The river shone in the sun, and many a boat with flashing oars was passing up and down on the great highway for the rich who went



Lord Say and Sele brought before Jack Cade.

to and fro between the cities of London and Westminster. There were no cabs or omnibuses, tramcars or railways, and few private carriages were then to be found.

As they walked and talked, a dispute arose as to who should take charge of the country as "Protector", the weak-minded king having for a time become insane. The Duke of Somerset claimed it for himself, as being one of Henry's chief friends. The Duke of York declared that he should be the man, as being the real heir to the throne. The meaning of it all was this. The king was descended from the fourth son of Edward III., that is, from John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster. The Duke of York came on his father's side from the fifth son of Edward III., but on his mother's side from the third son.

When the dispute became hot, Somerset plucked a red rose as a badge or mark for himself and his friends to wear at court, and so the Lancastrian party in the civil war were those of the "Red Rose". A white rose was plucked by the Duke of York, and so the Yorkists were the White Rose party. Fighting began in 1455, and the struggle is noted for its length, for the fearful loss of life among nobles and princes of royal blood, and for the cruelty which, in the hour of victory, was shown by both sides.

THE FIGHT FOR THE CROWN.—II.

HENRY THE SIXTH. EDWARD THE FOURTH.

(1455-1470.)

The warfare was mainly carried on by the nobles and their followers, and by men from abroad who were paid

to fight. The mass of the English people went on with their usual business, sowing and reaping, and working at their trades, and dwelling in safety under the laws of the land. In 1460, after defeating the royal forces at Northampton, and making a prisoner of Henry, the Duke of York claimed the throne. Parliament settled that, after Henry's death, the crown should go to the Duke of York or his heir. The young Prince Edward was thus set aside, and this brought out in full force the spirit of his mother, Queen Margaret.

She went to the north of England and raised a great army, and when the Duke of York pursued her, he was defeated and slain, in December, 1460, at the battle of Wakefield. His head was cut off, and in mockery of his claim to the throne, Margaret caused it to be set up, crowned with a paper crown, on the wall of the city which gave him his title. The quarrel was now taken up by York's eldest son Edward, who became Duke of York at about twenty years of age. He was a tall, strong man, brave as a lion, handsome in face, and of great skill in war, and he very soon showed Margaret and the Lancastrians what he could do for his rights.

He did not choose to wait for the king's death, as Parliament had settled, but resolved to become, if he could, king of England at once. One of his chief supporters was the Earl of Warwick, the richest and most powerful noble of the time, and called the "king-maker", because, in turns, he helped both to place Edward on the throne, and then to restore Henry. The young Duke of York gained a battle, in February, 1461, over the Lancastrians at Mortimer's Cross in Herefordshire. He then marched on London and was well received.

An assembly of Yorkist peers, prelates, and citizens of the capital called itself "Parliament", and took upon itself to dethrone Henry, and to proclaim the young duke as "Edward IV.". His reign thus dates from 1461 to 1483. He soon had to fight a great battle for the crown which he had won. Margaret was again in the field, heading a force of 60,000 men in Yorkshire. The two armies met near a village called Towton, eleven miles south-west of York, where Margaret and her husband Henry awaited the issue of the battle.

Never before or since in England were such mighty hosts of men gathered for civil warfare. The Lancastrians were the hardy men of the north, bred on the mountain and the moor, aided by borderers whose lives were made up of foray and fight. The army led by Edward, with the Earl of Warwick and many other Yorkist nobles, numbered about 50,000 men, including forces sent by many of the chief towns. The battle began at nine in the morning of Palm-Sunday, March 29th, 1461, in the midst of a violent storm of snow. By Edward's skill or good luck, his men were so posted that the wind was at their backs, while the snow was driven in the faces of the Lancastrian archers.

The consequence was that their aim was baffled, while the Yorkist shafts were driven on with more force by the wind into the packed masses of the foe. For six long hours, at close quarters, the dreadful contest went on, and then, at three o'clock, a fresh body of men arrived to help Edward. The Lancastrians gave way, and the retreat became a rout, in which no quarter was given, while about forty thousand men lay dead or dying on the ground. Three hundred and fifty years afterwards, the

old men of the villages in that part of the country still talked



Map to illustrate the Wars of the Roses

of the brooks running red with blood on that fearful day.

In 1464 the Lancastrians were defeated in other battles, and in the following year the dethroned king, after lying hidden for a year among the moors of Westmorland and Lancashire, was taken prisoner. He lay for five years in the Tower of London. Margaret and her son Edward took refuge in France. Edward IV.'s brothers, George and Richard, had become Dukes of Clarence and Gloucester. In 1464, the king married Lady Grey, the beautiful widow of a Lancastrian knight killed in the war. Her name before marriage was Elizabeth Woodville, and her relations, the Greys and the Woodvilles, now received many honours and much wealth from the king.

THE FIGHT FOR THE CROWN.—III.

EDWARD THE FOURTH.

(1470-1483.)

The Earl of Warwick, angry at what he thought the king's ungrateful behaviour to himself, took up the cause of Henry. He was joined by the Duke of Clarence, and in October, 1470, Edward had to flee abroad. Henry was brought from the Tower and again proclaimed king. But this state of affairs did not last long. In March, 1471, Edward arrived from Flanders with a small force, and was soon joined by many thousands of men, including a body under his brother the Duke of Clarence, who now deserted Warwick. In April the "king-maker" was defeated and slain at the battle of Barnet, a few miles north of London.

The struggle, however, was not yet over. On the very day that Warwick fell at Barnet, Margaret and Prince

Edward landed with a body of French auxiliaries at Weymouth, in Dorset, and were joined by some of the Lancastrian lords who still remained faithful. Edward instantly marched to cut off their progress to the north, where the Lancastrians were strong. On May 4th the armies met, and the Lancastrian cause was finally ruined by King Edward's victory at Tewkesbury. Prince Edward was killed either in the battle or in the pursuit. There is, probably, no truth in the Lancastrian story that, having been taken prisoner, he was murdered in Edward's tent after the battle.

The hapless Margaret was kept for four years in the Tower, where her husband, Henry, died a few weeks after the battle of Tewkesbury. Yorkists declare that his end was caused by grief for the loss of his son and throne. Lancastrian writers say that he was murdered by Richard, Duke of Gloucester. There is no evidence either way that can be trusted, and one account is just as likely to be true as the other. For twelve years Edward IV. reigned in peace. His authority as king was all the greater because the old nobility had been almost swept away during the civil war. In 1478 his brother, the Duke of Clarence, was put to death on a charge of treason.

For a hundred years or more from the accession of Edward the influence of Parliament was much weakened. Previously the House of Commons had been largely composed of gentlemen of noble birth. The ranks of the nobles had been thinned during the Wars of the Roses. The middle class, of traders and small land-owners, was not yet large, and the chief power in the state now came into the hands of the sovereign and the council of ministers chosen by him.

The life of Edward IV., after 1471, was chiefly one of wicked pleasure and of tyranny. To supply his wants, he caused the rich merchants of the time to lend sums which he never repaid, and to make gifts under the name of "benevolences" He gained much wealth also by taking the lands of nobles who had died fighting against him in the war, and he had thus little need of regular taxation. It is most agreeable to think of Edward as a sovereign who took interest in books and learning.

In his accounts we find charges for binding copies of old Latin and modern French writers, and for repairing chests to remove his books from London to a palace at Eltham, in Kent. It was in 1476 that the art of printing was brought from Flanders into England by a native of Kent, named William Caxton. The first book ever printed in English was printed by him, probably at Bruges in Flanders, in 1474, and when he came back to England he set up a printing-press in a small corner of some buildings adjoining Westminster Abbey.

The king and his brother, the Duke of Gloucester, took a great interest in Caxton's work. The first book ever printed in England, *The Dictes and Sayings of the Philosophers*, has a woodcut of the printer presenting it to Edward, who has by his side the little Prince Edward who afterwards died in the Tower. For about fifteen years Caxton went on with his work, printing and sending forth from his press, or publishing, nearly one hundred volumes. Many of these were written by himself, or were translated into English from the French. He was buried, in 1491, in the yard of St. Margaret's Church, Westminster, near the place of his daily toil.

THE FIGHT FOR THE CROWN.—IV.

RICHARD THE THIRD (1483-1485).

When Edward IV. died in 1483, the heir to the throne, on the Yorkist side, was the young Prince Edward, thirteen years of age. His uncle Richard, a bold, bad, and very able man, wished to become king himself, and a few weeks after Edward IV.'s death, he seized the young king and put him in the Tower. At first the Duke of Gloucester only caused himself to be named "Protector of England" by a council of lords and of the citizens of London. Then he persuaded the queen-mother, Edward's widow, to give up the other young prince, Richard, a lad of ten, and he placed him in the Tower along with his brother.

His next step was to send forth the story that the queen had not been really the wife of Edward IV., because he had been married before, and his real wife was still living when he married Lady Grey. There was no truth in this, but it gave an excuse to a body of lords and citizens for offering the crown to Gloucester in the name of the nation. The duke pretended to be very unwilling to take it, but gave way to their wishes, and was crowned king at Westminster Abbey as Richard III. The queen's friends were seized, and some of them were put to death, and at first none dared to resist the will of the usurper.

Then followed the death of the two young princes in the Tower. A chronicle or history written at the time, or soon afterwards, says simply, "And the two sons of King Edward were put to silence". In 1493, under

Henry VII., two men named Sir James Tyrrel and John Dighton declared that they took part in smothering the boys in their beds, and that the bodies were buried under the stairs. This statement was first printed in 1543, half



Murder of the Princes in the Tower

a century after it was made, and no man can say whether it is true or not. It is certain, however, that the boys disappeared, and that most people at the time believed them to have been murdered by order of their uncle

Nearly two centuries later, in 1674, under Charles II., a discovery was made which has always been thought to prove the truth of the popular belief. In that year some alterations were being made in the White

Tower, a part of the Tower buildings, and some bones were found under the old staircase. These bones were seen, by the doctors who examined them, to be those of two boys of about the ages of the young princes. The king therefore caused them to be removed to Henry VII.'s Chapel in Westminster Abbey, where they now lie with a Latin inscription on marble over them.

Some useful laws were passed by the only Parliament held in Richard's short reign. Two remarkable changes were made in the session of 1484. For the first time the laws or statutes to be obeyed by the English people were drawn up in the English language. For the first time the laws of the land were issued in a printed form. We may also note that, in the Acts regulating the levying of taxes on goods imported into England, an exception was made in favour of one class of articles. Books from every country, written or printed, were admitted without any payment to the state.

During Richard's reign the Lancastrians were plotting against his power. The nearest heir to the throne, on the Lancastrian side, was Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, descended from John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, who, as we have already seen, was fourth son of Edward III. The name Tudor came from his Welsh ancestor, who married Catharine, widow of Henry V. A plan was formed for his marriage to Elizabeth of York, eldest daughter of Edward IV. This would join the two lines of York and Lancaster, and put an end to the wars of the rival houses.

Some of Richard's chief supporters were gained over to Richmond's cause, and on August 7th, 1485, Henry landed at Milford Haven in South Wales. His small

force, raised in Normandy, was soon joined by many of the Welsh and English, and on August 15th the last battle of the Wars of the Roses took place near Market Bosworth, in Leicestershire. Richard fought desperately for his crown, but he was deserted in the middle of the action by a division of his troops. In striving to cut his way to Richmond he was killed, and the crown which fell from his helmet was placed amidst shouts and clapping of hands on the victor's head. Richard's body, covered with mire and blood, was flung across a horse, and taken for burial to the church of the Grey Friars at Leicester.

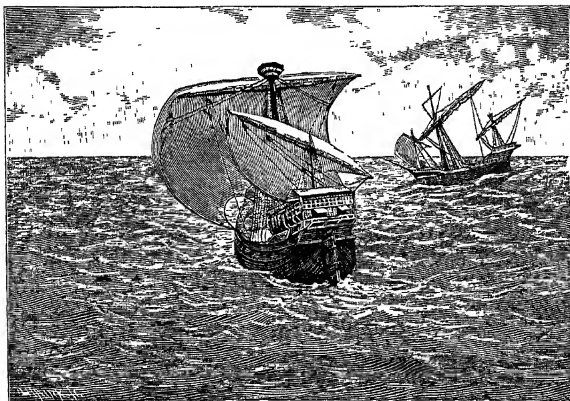
THE TUDOR SOVEREIGNS (1485-1603).

HENRY THE SEVENTH (1485-1509).

The opening of the Tudor period in England is regarded as the beginning of modern history. It was a time of great change in Western Europe. The spirit of progress was at work in religion, politics, commerce, the social system, literature, art, science, and war. Assisted by the cheapness of books which came with the invention of printing, men began to study, far more than they had done for many hundreds of years, the great writers of Greece and Rome. This was the "new learning" of which we hear so much in connection with this period, called the *Renaissance*, or revival of arts and learning. A flood of new light was poured into the minds of men. The discovery, or re-discovery, of new regions of the world was aided by the use of the mariner's compass, first employed in Europe about the fourteenth century. In 1492 Christopher Columbus, a Genoese captain in the

service of Spain, in search of a new road to the Indies, reached the Bahamas, a group of islands in the West Indies. The mainland of North America was first visited in this age by the Cabots, a father and two sons of Venetian race, who sailed in 1497 from Bristol.

In the following year Vasco da Gama, a Portuguese



The Ships of Columbus sailing to America

navigator, made his way to India round the Cape of Good Hope. Up to that time trade with the East had been carried on by way of the Mediterranean, the Red, and the Arabian Seas. The change of the route made Western Europe, instead of the Mediterranean, the centre of the trade of the world. The British Isles, from their position in the north-west of Europe, were the nearest to North America. The growth of trade in Tudor times started the people of these islands in the race which

made them the foremost nation of the world in maritime

The use of gunpowder in battle and in sieges brought to an end the days of safety in stone walls and steel armour. The feudal fortress or castle could not bear the battering of cannon, and the feudal knight was helpless against the pike and musket of the new-armed foot-soldier. No external change, however, equalled in importance that which came from the general spread of knowledge. As year by year the printing-press sent forth more books, there were more persons to whom books became a necessity. As people read, they began to think for themselves, and many persons ceased to believe things simply because they were taught to do so by persons in authority.

The power of the crown or of the sovereign in these days was greater than it has ever been in modern times in Great Britain. The old nobles had almost been swept away in the Wars of the Roses. The church had become helpless, and clung to its only support, the crown. The middle class, composed of farmers, manufacturers, merchants, tradesmen, lawyers, doctors, and others, was still comparatively small and without influence. The return of members to the House of Commons was, to a great extent, in the hands of the sovereign and the ministers.

During the hundred years or more for which this "New Monarchy" lasted, the freedom of the subject was in some ways diminished. The rights declared by the Great Charter were often set aside. Men were imprisoned without lawful cause, and were sometimes condemned without a trial before their equals in rank. A part of

the king's council was made into the *Court of Star Chamber*. The judges of this tribunal became infamous for their unjust and cruel acts. Excessive and unlawful punishments were inflicted, such as torture, enormous fines, whipping, and the cutting off of hands and ears.



Henry the Seventh

Large sums of money were taken from rich people as fines for offences which were either very small or had not been committed at all. Two judges named Empson and Dudley were the chief instruments of Henry VII.'s tyranny in this way. Henry was a very crafty and capable man, whose chief aims were to keep peace at home and abroad, and to amass a large royal treasure. He was thus able to get on without calling a Parliament together for the levying of taxes, and the Houses only met twice during the last thirteen years of his reign.

A clever man named Perkin Warbeck headed a rebellion against Henry. Warbeck gave out that he was the young prince Richard, son of Edward IV.—the lad whom most people thought to have been murdered in the Tower. Edward's sister Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy, always said that Warbeck was her nephew, and he was received as Duke of York by James IV. of Scotland. Warbeck took up arms in Cornwall, but was captured, and hanged at Tyburn in 1499 after a short imprisonment in the Tower. We need only further notice, in this reign, the marriage of the king's eldest daughter, Margaret, to the Scottish king. Owing to this union the Scottish and German lines of sovereigns, the houses of Stuart and Hanover, afterwards came to the British throne.

HENRY THE EIGHTH (1509-1547).—I.

CARDINAL WOLSEY (1515-1529).

Henry VII's eldest son, Prince Arthur, died in his father's lifetime, soon after being married to a young Spanish princess, Katharine of Aragon. Henry VIII. married his brother's widow. Such a marriage was contrary to the law of the church, but the pope, in this case, granted a dispensation. This marriage was one of the chief causes of a change of form in the religion of the country. The change was brought about by a quarrel which arose between the king and the pope, regarding the validity of the marriage.

Henry VIII. was a strong, handsome, active, lively, and clever youth of eighteen years of age when he came

to the throne. He was much liked by the mass of the people, for his free and open speech and manners. His chief faults were the common ones of self-love and self-will, and by giving way to these he, in time, became a cruel tyrant. For those who were high in place and power,



Henry the Eighth.

the nobles of his court, and the ministers who managed affairs, he was a ruler rather to be feared than loved

It was not possible to turn him from a purpose which he had once formed. He cared little for justice and mercy in seeking to gratify his desires. To offend his pride or to oppose his wishes was sure to lead to ruin. After years of faithful work, a man who served Henry in public affairs might become the victim of his anger, and be robbed of wealth and life with scarcely the semblance of a trial.

In the first half of his reign, Henry's chief minister was Cardinal Wolsey, one of the most famous of Englishmen. This extremely able man, Thomas Wolsey, was born at Ipswich in 1471. He was the son of a grazier and wool-merchant of good means, who had him well taught in the learning of that day. At fifteen years of age the lad took his degree as Bachelor of Arts at Oxford University, where he remained until 1500. He was ordained as priest, and for some years was master of the grammar-school attached to Magdalen College. Becoming chaplain to Henry VII., he gained high favour by the wonderful speed, good fortune, and skill with which he did some business for the king.

He was sent over to Flanders on an important service in foreign affairs, and leaving Richmond Palace, near London, at noon, he was back there, with his task fulfilled, on the fourth evening after his departure. After travelling over the rough roads of the time, and twice crossing the sea, he had come back to tell of his arranging a difficult matter with the Emperor of Germany. When Henry saw him, he never dreamed that Wolsey had returned from abroad, and angrily asked him why he had not started. We may well imagine his wonder and delight on hearing of so swift a journey and of complete success.

A man so full of energy in his sovereign's service was sure to rise fast and high. In 1508 his advance in the church began with his appointment as Dean of Lincoln, and under Henry VIII. he became, in 1514, Bishop of Lincoln and Archbishop of York. He had already shown, when he went with the king on a warlike expedition to France, great ability in conducting the difficult work of keeping the troops well supplied with food. In

1515 he became Lord Chancellor, and in the same year, at Henry's request, he was made Cardinal by Pope Leo X.

In the following year, as papal legate, or commissioner



Cardinal Wolsey

for doing the pope's business in England, Wolsey had full control of church affairs, ranking in power and place above the Archbishop of Canterbury. No English subject since the Conquest had ever risen to such a height of power. He held two other bishoprics besides those named, and his enormous wealth from the incomes of so many highly-paid posts enabled him to live almost as splendidly as the king himself. Hundreds of persons of good birth, under the control of lords and knights, composed his household

When he went from any of his houses on great occasions, silver crosses and silver pillars with banners were carried before him in procession. Stage-plays, dances, and other amusements went on in his splendid mansions, two of which, Hampton Court and York House, Whitehall, afterwards became royal palaces. Some of Wolsey's wealth was well employed in founding the grammar-school at Ipswich, and the great Oxford seat of learning, first called "Cardinal College", now known as "Christ Church".

HENRY THE EIGHTH.—II.

CARDINAL WOLSEY (*Continued*).

There was nothing which this wonderful man seemed unable to do, and to do well. As chancellor, he was one of the best judges that ever sat in that court, and gave decisions that showed alike learning, insight, and a sense of justice. He had charge of finance or money matters, of foreign business, and of all the most important affairs at home. For fourteen years, from 1515 to 1529, he managed to retain the favour of one of the most jealous kings that ever lived. This alone would show how clever he was.

Wolsey was hated by the nobles on account of his pride and the splendour of his way of life, and on account of the favour which was shown to him by Henry. By the body of the people he was greatly disliked because of the unlawful methods he employed to raise money. From 1515 to 1523 the Houses of Parliament were not summoned to meet at all, nor again from 1523 to 1528. Forced loans or gifts, the

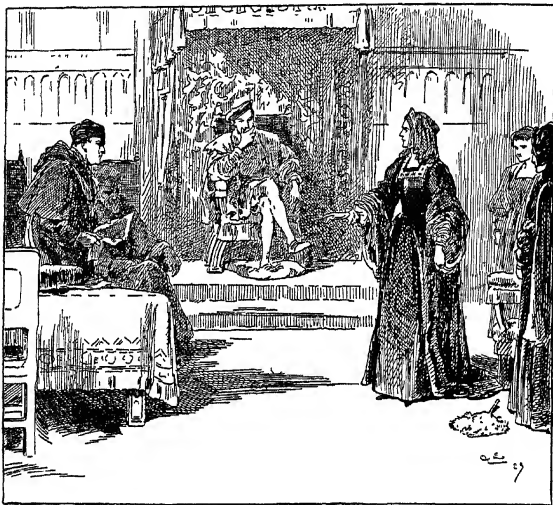
"benevolences" begun by Edward IV., were taken from wealthy persons and from towns. In 1523 a parliament was called, and a large sum was demanded from the House of Commons, to be raised by a property-tax.

After long discussion, and much display of anger by Wolsey, the king got only the half of what had been asked. As it was, every one of any wealth, down to the working man, had to pay the tenth part of his possessions to the king. In 1525 Wolsey, fearing more resistance from the House of Commons, again took to unlawful taxation, and demanded the sixth part of every man's property. The patience of Englishmen was by this time worn out, and both the minister and the king gave way before their threats and the open signs of armed rebellion.

Henry VIII.'s quarrel with Pope Clement VII. was the first step towards a change of religion in England, and the separation of the Church of England from the Roman Catholic Church. The quarrel arose in this way. Queen Katharine had a daughter named Mary, but Henry desired to have a son to succeed him. He wished, therefore, to be rid of his wife, to obtain what is called a divorce, so that he might marry another lady.

At last Pope Clement consented to have an inquiry made as to whether it had been lawful for the former pope, Julius II., to allow Henry to marry his brother's widow. If it had not been lawful, then Henry was not married to Katharine at all, and could take any wife he pleased. The pope was really trying to "gain time", as we say, in the hope of something occurring to save him from deciding the matter at all.

A legate, or commissioner, named Cardinal Campeggio, was sent from Rome, and arrived in England in October, 1528. He found reason for delay after delay, on pretence of consulting the pope about certain points. Wolsey



The Trial of Queen Katharine.

was placed in a very awkward position. The king suspected him, rightly or wrongly, of taking part with the pope against his wishes. At last, in May, 1529, the two cardinals opened their court in London, and on June 21st the king and queen appeared before them in the great hall of the Blackfriars Monastery.

A great historical scene then took place, the chief points of which are given by Shakespeare in his play, *King*

Henry the Eighth. When the queen's name was called she did not answer, but flung herself at the king's feet, appealing to him for justice and right, as "a poor woman and a stranger born out of his dominions". "For twenty years", she declared, "she had been his true and loving wife. She had given birth to several children, and, although it had pleased God to call them out of this world, it had been no fault of hers." She then said that her marriage with Henry must have been good and lawful, or it would not have been allowed by his father and hers. Katharine then rose and left the court, refusing to appear again before the judges. They pronounced her to be unlawfully obstinate, and began to inquire into her marriage with Prince Arthur, their sittings lasting until late in July.

HENRY THE EIGHTH.—III.

CARDINAL WOLSEY (*Continued*)

Wolsey's life at this time was most unpleasant. He was day by day a sufferer from the impatience of one of the most wrathful and violent of men and monarchs. At the breaking up of the court one day, the cardinal had an interview with Henry, as we read, "in his grace's (or Majesty's) privy chamber". Then he "took his barge at the Black Friars, and so went to his house at Westminster. The Bishop of Carlisle, being with him in his barge, said unto him (wiping the sweat from his own face), "Sir, it is a very hot day". "Yea," said my Lord Cardinal, "if you had been as well chafed as I have been within this hour, you would say it was hot."

The last blow for Wolsey came when the foreign cardinal, by the pope's orders, made an end of the sittings of the court, and summoned Henry and Katharine to appear before Clement in Rome.

Henry turned in his rage upon Wolsey, and blamed him for all the delay and disappointment which had occurred. On October 9th, 1529, the cardinal sâit for the last time as chancellor in the Court of Chancery. He was deprived of his office as chief minister, and his London residence, York House, and most of his other possessions were taken from him. He had already, some years before, made a present of Hampton Court to the king, and the place became, as it remains, a royal palace. The fallen man was further charged with treason, but he threw himself on the king's mercy, and received a pardon.

Wolsey, as Archbishop of York, for the first time went northwards to visit his people. He had been so engaged in public business and worldly affairs that he had neglected his duties as a bishop. In the spring of 1530 he journeyed to his new scene of labour, and seems to have won the favour and respect of the clergy and of their flocks. His time and means were well employed in preaching to the poor, showing charity and hospitality, and performing the general duties of his position as a ruling churchman.

Even there, however, his enemies could not let him rest in peace, and their efforts to injure him caused the king to have him arrested again on a charge of treason. Nothing whatever is now known of any new offence which Wolsey could have given. He left his home at Cawood Castle, near Selby, amid the tears and prayers of

his household. As he passed out of the castle gates three thousand or more of his humble neighbours were there, crying "God save your grace! Evil take them that have thus removed you from us!" The unhappy man might now depart with some thoughts to cheer him by the way. He was not wholly deserted by man, for he had earned the blessings of the poor.

As he journeyed towards London, over the rough and miry roads of those days, he fell ill at Sheffield Park, just as "Master Knighton", the Constable of the Tower, a high official, came to take charge of him as prisoner. The cardinal rose from his bed, and after three days' riding he and his guards reached Leicester. The end of his life's journey was come. Worn out by toil and disease, and with his spirit utterly broken, he arrived at the doors of the abbey. The abbot received him with great respect, and Wolsey, as the gleam of torches held by the monks fell upon his faded face, said that he had come to lay his bones among them.

Three days later, in the sixtieth year of his age, he died. Among his last words were a solemn warning to Sir William Knighton, in case he should ever come to be a member of the Council. "Take care," he cried, "what matter you put into the king's head, for you shall never put it out again." These words, referring to Henry's determined self-will, were the words of one who well knew the nature of the master whom he had served too well. According to one of his own sayings at this time, Wolsey should have thought more than he had done of serving God.

HENRY THE EIGHTH.—IV.

(1530–1534.)

When the pope would not grant the divorce from Katharine of Aragon, Henry took the matter into his own hands. He resolved to do away with papal power in England. There was a large party in the country who desired to lessen the authority of the pope, and some people wished to have a new national church. In 1529 Parliament made some statutes which lowered the payments made to the clergy for wills and for burials, and compelled them to give more attention to their duties. The king then caused the clergy in Convocation, a sort of parliament of their own, to acknowledge him as "the protector and only supreme head of the church and clergy of England".

This was a warning to the pope of what was coming. In 1530 Henry got some of the foreign universities, or bodies of learned men, to declare that his marriage with his brother's widow was a thing that was wrongful according to the Scriptures, and to the judgment of the church in all ages. It is said that this appeal to the universities was made by the advice of Thomas Cranmer, a Cambridge clergyman. At any rate, in 1533, as a reward for favouring the divorce from Katharine, the king appointed him Archbishop of Canterbury.

In 1532 another important step was taken towards ending papal power in England. An Act of Parliament was made forbidding bishops and archbishops to pay to the pope, as had been the custom, the large sums of money called *Annates*, or first-fruits. This meant the

whole income of their high offices for the first year after their appointment. They were now to pay to the pope only five pounds in each hundred of the yearly value. If the pope refused to consecrate bishops, the king might order an archbishop, or any two bishops, to perform the ceremony.

About the same time Convocation agreed not to make any new canons, or rules, for the conduct of the clergy, without the king's permission. The church thus lost the power of making laws regulating her own affairs, and became, for the first time since the Conquest, fully subject to the crown. Another Act, called the *Statute of Appeals*, enforced previous laws forbidding any person to take causes or legal disputes to the papal court at Rome for final decision. The laws and courts of England were henceforth to be the first and last means of settling all English affairs.

The pope, Clement VII, was not moved by any actions or threats of Henry, because he was supported, in refusing the divorce, by the powerful emperor Charles V. of Germany. This monarch was nephew of Queen Katharine, and, as he was really master of Italy at this time, Clement thought it his duty to agree with him rather than with the English sovereign. By this time Henry's patience was tired out. In January, 1533, he was privately married to Anne Boleyn, the beautiful daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn, who had been created Earl of Wiltshire. In the following May, Archbishop Cranmer pronounced Katharine's marriage to have been "null and void", or of no effect and value, from the first, and on June 1st Anne was crowned as queen at Westminster.

Thus ended the great matter of Henry's divorce. In the following September the king's second daughter, the Princess Elizabeth, was born at Greenwich Palace. Clement at once declared Cranmer's judgment to be illegal. Henry replied to this by causing the clergy to preach to the people that the pope was "only bishop of Rome", and that he had, by God's law, no authority or power in England. In March, 1534, the papal assembly of cardinals declared the marriage of Katharine to have been lawful, and threatened Henry with expulsion from the church of Christ altogether if he refused to take her back as his wife.

The English king paid no heed to this. He caused Parliament to make laws to put an end to all authority of the pope in England. The power to appoint bishops was placed in the hands of the sovereign, where it remains at the present day. Any bishop who refused to consecrate as bishop the person named by the sovereign was to be punished by deprivation of office and loss of all property.

HENRY THE EIGHTH—V.

SIR THOMAS MORE

(1534-1535)

In the same year, 1534, the great *Act of Supremacy* entirely ended papal authority in England. The king was declared to be "Supreme Head on earth of the Church of England", with the possession and enjoyment of all power in all matters. The sovereign, from that day, could alone appoint to the higher offices in the church, and had power, by means of the courts of law, to settle

all disputes regarding church property and church teaching. Any person who denied the title and the powers claimed in this most famous Act was made liable to the punishment for high treason.

The whole body of the clergy, in Convocation, signed their names to this denial of the pope's authority. There was one bishop only, Fisher of Rochester, who refused to allow that Henry, and not the pope, had authority in the Church of England. This same learned and pious man was also the only bishop who, in 1527, had been brave enough to refuse his signature to a declaration that Henry's marriage with Katharine was unlawful.

There was one other man of very high position who, like Fisher, would not admit Henry to be "Supreme Head of the Church". This was Sir Thomas More, one of the best, if not one of the greatest, of Englishmen. He was born in 1478, in Milk Street, Cheapside, in the city of London, son of a man of high ability and character, who became Sir John More, a judge of the Court of King's Bench. The bright boy, showing his cleverness and wit almost as soon as he learned to speak, was well taught in Latin at St. Anthony's School in Threadneedle Street, then under Nicholas Holt. At thirteen years of age he was placed, according to the custom of the time, for further training under the care of a great personage.

In 1493 young More became page in the household of Cardinal Morton, who was Archbishop of Canterbury and Chancellor under Henry VII. The lad showed so much ability that Morton would say to the nobles dining with him, "This boy here waiting at the table, whosoever shall live to see it, will turn out a marvellous man". Every passing year, as More grew to manhood,

served to show the truth of these words. At Oxford, to which he was sent by his admiring and venerable friend the archbishop, he became an excellent scholar in the "New Learning", or Greek.

In due time he was famed all over western Europe for his cleverness, learning, and delightful temper, manner, and talk. The great Dutch scholar, Erasmus, one of the foremost men of the age, became his close friend. There are portraits of More by the great German painter, Holbein, in which he appears with a keen, irregular face, a gray restless eye, thin lips, tumbled brown hair, and careless posture and dress. His lively manners and witty speech made many persons fail to see the deeply religious character of the man. Before we turn to the serious events of his public life, we will look at him as a son, a husband, and a father.

When More was chancellor, his father, Sir John, nearly ninety years of age, was the oldest judge in the King's Bench Court, and we read that it was "a beautiful spectacle to see the son ask the blessing of the father every day upon his knees before he sat upon his own seat". We there have the reverence for parents which in those days was not only felt, but openly shown, by all good children, men, and women.

At one time More had wished to become a monk, and in preparation for that he spent four years in a religious house or monastery in London, in prayer and penance, wearing a hair-shirt next his skin. One day, however, he saw and loved the daughter of an Essex gentleman, named Colte, and then he gave way to his father's wishes and followed the law as his profession. He married Jane Colte, and took delight in training her in his own taste

for learning and for music. Children were born in the home at Chelsea, then a charming village by the river side, above London, among apple-trees, meadows, and



The first meeting of Sir Thomas More's daughter and Henry the Eighth

gardens gay with flowers. With these little ones the rising lawyer, already a great man in the House of Commons and in other places of public business, would have none of the strictness which was then usually found in the treatment of children.

He loved to teach them, and was as fond as they were

of their pets and their games. He would even take his visitors, grave gray-headed scholars and statesmen, into the garden to see his girls' rabbit-hutches, or to watch the tricks and gambols of their favourite monkey. In a letter written to his children, when he was far away from home on some public affairs, he says, "I have given you kisses enough, but stripes hardly ever" One of his daughters, Margaret, who married a gentleman named Roper, was a lady of the highest character, abilities, and learning, and was specially noted, as we shall see, for her devoted love to her father

HENRY THE EIGHTH.—VI.

SIR THOMAS MORE (*Continued*).

When he once betook himself in earnest to the business of life, the rise of this able and delightful man was very quick. In 1504, at twenty-six years of age, he was in the House of Commons, opposing with sound reason and ready speech the king's demand for a large sum of money. When Henry VIII. came to the throne, he sought More's help in public affairs. He was twice sent on embassies to the Low Countries. In the law-courts he had a large business, and was appointed in succession to various high legal posts. In 1523 he was Speaker of the House of Commons, and it became his duty, which he boldly discharged, to maintain the rights of the House against Wolsey.

More well knew the true character of the king whom he served. Henry used to visit him, in his house at

Chelsea, with flattering freedom. Sometimes he would come, without invitation or notice, to join in the family's six-o'clock supper, and would walk in the garden with his arm round More's neck. Such was the fashion of the time among dear friends. When his son-in-law, Mr. Roper, expressed his pleasure at these marks of royal favour, More replied, "If my head would win him a castle in France" (with which country Henry was then at war), "it would not fail to go".

On the fall of Wolsey in 1529, More became Chancellor in his place, and held the post for more than two years, doing justice to all men, rich and poor, without taking bribes, or showing fear or favour. Rather than support the king in the matter of the divorce from Queen Katharine, in 1532, he resigned his high office. He refused to be present at the coronation of Anne Boleyn, and from that time, as he well knew, he was marked out by the king for death. In April, 1534, when Henry was declared Head of the English Church, More was summoned to attend at Lambeth before Archbishop Cranmer and the other royal commissioners or judges specially appointed to deal with his case.

He felt as he left his home at Chelsea that he should return to it no more, and he could not trust himself to kiss and bid farewell to his wife and girls, as he was wont to do when he entered his boat. With a last look at his spring flowers, he passed out of his garden to the river-side. He allowed none of his household to follow him out, "but pulled the wicket after him," we read, "and shut them all from him". The strength of his love might have triumphed over his heroic resolve rather to die than to state what he did not honestly believe.

In that moment of struggle his soul won the victory, and he whispered to his son-in-law, William Roper, "I thank the Lord that the field is won". Before his judges, he flatly refused to acknowledge any other head of the church than the pope, or to declare the king's marriage with Anne Boleyn to be lawful. He was sent to the Tower, along with Bishop Fisher, and there they lay for more than a year. More's letters to his daughter, Margaret Roper, written from his cell, with a piece of burnt coal, give proof of the man's noble and loving heart.

On July 1st, 1535, More, his body bent and his limbs weakened by long confinement, tottered into Westminster Hall, clad in a coarse woollen gown, and leaning upon his staff. He had often entered the same stately and spacious building, arrayed in the chancellor's robes, attended by all the pomp of his high office, with mace and seals borne before him. He now came to be tried for high treason, under the new Act, for denying the king's headship of the church. He was sentenced to be beheaded.

As he landed at the Tower wharf, his daughter Margaret rushed through the guard that surrounded him with their tall halberts. Flinging her arms around him, and mingling her bright hair with his grey beard, she kissed him again and again amid the sobs and tears of the spectators. Five days later, on July 6th, the victim of his sovereign's cruel tyranny came forth from his cell to die. To the last moment of his life, his spirit was cheerful and his wit was bright.

The scaffold, on which the headsman's block was placed, was built of old and crazy timbers, and the platform shook as More placed his foot on the ladder to mount.

Turning to the Lieutenant of the Tower, he cried, "I pray you see me safe up, for my coming down I can shift for myself" As his head lay on the block, and the headsman was about to raise his glittering axe for the stroke, he bade the man stay until he had put aside his beard, murmuring, "Pity that should be cut, for it never committed treason". His head was fixed for fourteen days on London Bridge. Then Margaret Roper got leave to take it down, and, having carefully preserved it for many years, she had it at last, after her death, placed in her arms and buried with her.

HENRY THE EIGHTH.—VII.

(1536-1547.)

Henry's chief minister in political affairs from 1534 to 1540 was Thomas Cromwell, a man of rare ability and courage, but arbitrary and utterly unscrupulous, who was just the tool that the tyrant wanted at such a time. He had been a trusted servant of Wolsey, and had won golden opinions for himself by his fidelity to that great minister after his loss of court favour. It was he and Cranmer who did most during this reign to change the outward form of religion in England. In 1536, on his advice and under his direction, all the smaller monasteries and nunneries or religious houses were suppressed. The monks and nuns were turned out to go where they would, while all their property—money and plate, lands, buildings, and cattle—was seized for the king.

In May, 1536, Anne Boleyn was beheaded in the Tower on a charge (no one can now tell whether it was true or false) of misconduct as a wife. On the next day Henry

married his third wife, Jane Seymour, who became mother of Prince Edward, in October, 1537, and died ten days later. The people in many parts of the country were much opposed to the king's treatment of the monastic houses, and in the autumn of 1536, in Yorkshire



Queen Anne Boleyn.

and other northern counties, there was a great rebellion called the "Pilgrimage of Grace". Some of the nobles joined in this rising, which was crushed early in the following year. Many of the leaders were beheaded; one lady was burnt for treason, and hundreds of the lower class were hanged.

Nothing stayed the course of Henry and Cromwell. Between 1537 and 1539 the greater monasteries and nunneries were suppressed, and their vast wealth became by Act of Parliament vested in the king. Some of this

plunder he bestowed on the supporters of his policy, who were thus enabled to found families whose members still, in some cases, sit in the House of Lords. A portion of the revenue was used in founding six new bishoprics, and another portion went to establish the famous Trinity College, Cambridge. Much was spent in supporting the king's wasteful household, and a good deal of the plate and jewels of the monasteries was stolen on its way to the royal treasury. The Church of England has never recovered from the blow thus inflicted by the hands of her new "Head upon earth".

Henry's dislike to his fourth wife, Anne of Cleves, a German Protestant princess, brought about Cromwell's downfall. Cromwell wished to establish the new Protestant faith, and hoped that this marriage would aid him in this. The king was very angry when he found that the lady was not only plain in face and ungraceful in manner, but that she could not speak or understand a word of English, French, or Latin, and was thus unable to converse with him.

Cromwell had, in fact, deceived Henry in showing him a portrait of Anne painted by Holbein. There she appeared good-looking, and when the king met her at Rochester he was sorely troubled. It was impossible to send the lady home again, and there was nothing to be done but to marry her. Five months later, in June, 1540, Anne of Cleves was divorced, on the plea that when she was a child she had been engaged to marry someone else. She, in that case, according to church law, was not married to Henry at all.

Anne of Cleves received the handsome pension of £3000 a year, a good income in those days even for a

queen, and lived comfortably till 1557 in her own house at Chelsea. She was more fortunate than her successor, Katharine Howard, niece of the Duke of Norfolk, and Henry's fifth wife. This young and beautiful woman, married in July, 1540, on the day that Cromwell died for treason, was herself executed for the same offence in February, 1542.

Henry's sixth and last wife was the Lady Latimer, widow of Lord Latimer; she is better known in history by her maiden name of Katharine Parr. She was married to the king in July, 1543, and was so wise and so careful of her duty to her husband that she gave no offence, and managed to live safely with the royal tiger until his death.

END OF HENRY THE EIGHTH.—EDWARD THE SIXTH—QUEEN MARY THE FIRST.

(1536-1558.)

We must carefully notice that, though Henry VIII. quarrelled with the pope, and made himself head of the church in England, he did not disagree with the teaching of the pope in religious matters. He never became what is called a Protestant; he died a Catholic, in the old sense of the word, for which "Roman Catholic" is now used by those who do not look upon the pope as their leader in religious affairs. So far was Henry from intending to change the religious belief of the nation, that in 1539 he caused Parliament to pass the famous Act known as "The Six Articles". This terrible law threatened death by burning or hanging to all who

opposed some of the chief points of doctrine and practice in the Roman Catholic Church.

Some important advance, however, was made towards those changes which came fully under Henry's successor, the sixth Edward. In 1536 printed copies of the whole



Edward the Sixth

Bible were for the first time allowed to come into the country from abroad. A translation of the New Testament, by the famous William Tyndal, was also then first printed in England. A copy of the Bible was placed in every church, and the people began to read it and to hear it read, and to talk about it and explain it among themselves. Some parts of the Prayer-books, such as the Epistles and Gospels, the Litany, and portions of the morning and evening service, were printed in English instead of in Latin.

Of the men of this time who were in favour of reform

or change in religion, one of the most remarkable was the blunt, rugged, honest Hugh Latimer. He was born about 1490, was the son of a yeoman or small land-owner in Leicestershire, and became a student and Fellow of Clare College, Cambridge. In 1535 he was made Bishop of Worcester, and won great favour with the people by his bold plain preaching against evil in and outside of the church. The mind of the nation was slowly turning away from some of the old doctrines, and inclining to the opinions advocated by the party who were sometimes called "Reformers", sometimes "Protestants".

Under Edward VI., who reigned from 1547 to 1553, and died in his sixteenth year, power in church and state affairs was chiefly in the hands of Archbishop Cranmer, and of "Protector" Somerset and other nobles. In this time, the "Reformation", or change of religion, in England was nearly completed. The clergy were allowed to marry. The Catholic service of the Mass was turned into the Communion-service of the Church of England; and the church Prayer-book in English was put into almost the same form that it now has.

The next ruler, Queen Mary, elder daughter of Henry VIII., was a strict Catholic, and her reign was a time of trouble for England. She married, in 1554, Philip II., King of Spain, one of the most truly hateful men that ever existed in the world. He lived a wicked life himself, but thought it to be his duty to torture and burn to death all persons who dared to deny the old faith of the church. Both he and Mary fully believed that the surest way of getting to heaven was to compel persons, by sword and fire, to agree with the teaching of the pope and the Catholic Church.

The law of Henry IV.'s reign was now revived, and Cranmer, Latimer, Bishop Hooper of Gloucester, Bishop Ridley of London, and nearly 300 other persons, were burned during the persecution which raged from 1555 to 1558. These victims were taken from all ranks of



Queen Mary

society, and included country gentlemen, artisans, farmers, servants, women, two boys, and two babies. The Princess Elizabeth, Mary's half-sister, had a narrow escape from the same horrible fate. She owed her safety partly to her own prudence, and partly, it is said, to the protection of Philip. That shrewd king took her part, not from any love for her, but in order to gain his own ends. By the will of Henry VIII. Elizabeth was the next heir to the throne, but if she died, the crown would probably

pass to Mary, Queen of Scots. Mary was engaged to marry the Dauphin of France, and Philip was by no means anxious that the crowns of England and France should be united. He wished to maintain the alliance between England and Spain.

The war with France into which Philip dragged England brought about the loss of Calais. In January, 1558, the place was forced to surrender to its French besiegers, and in the following November, Mary, hated by the people, and now deserted by her husband, ended her life in misery and gloom.

QUEEN ELIZABETH.—I.

(1558-1603.)

Queen Elizabeth was one of the greatest and ablest rulers that England has ever had. During her reign of forty-five years the country made much progress in trade and manufactures, and peace was, for the most part, maintained at home and abroad. Much of the success of Elizabeth's government was due to the able men whom she chose as her chief advisers and ministers. Among these we may name William Cecil, whom she made Lord Burleigh; Sir Francis Walsingham; and Burleigh's second son, Sir Robert Cecil, afterwards Earl of Salisbury. From him the present Marquis of Salisbury, whose name is also Robert Cecil, is descended.

The queen had much strength of will, confidence, and courage, and, like all the Tudor sovereigns, she was fond of power. She was, however, wise enough to know when it was necessary to yield to the wishes and demands

of Parliament and people. She thus kept her place firmly on the throne, and was greatly esteemed by the nation. One of her chief aims was to keep the country out of foreign wars, so as to give her people



Queen Elizabeth

time to recover from past troubles, and become strong and united. In religious affairs she strove to maintain the Protestant faith, and under her the Church of England finally became what it is now in doctrine and rule.

In the settlement of religious affairs she was guided chiefly by the wise and prudent counsels of Matthew Parker, Archbishop of Canterbury. The right of men to religious freedom was at that time understood by few, and an *Act of Uniformity* forced all ministers of religion

to use only the church-service. This law bore very hardly on two classes of Elizabeth's subjects.

When she came to the throne, it is believed that one-third of them were still, in religious belief and practice, adherents of the Church of Rome. By degrees a large number came over to the new or Protestant faith, and joined the Church of England. Those who remained Catholics were forced either to leave the country, or to endure persecution at home.

There was also a class of extreme Protestants called, in mockery, the "Puritans", because they desired to have what they thought a purer belief and form of worship than those of the Church of England.

These people held very strict opinions both in religious matters and in the affairs of common life. They called it a "popish" practice for ministers to wear the white surplice, or to use the sign of the cross in baptism. The more extreme among them thought it wrong to see a stage-play, or to dance round the May-pole, or to hunt the fox and the hare, or even to eat mince-pies at Christmas.

In spite of these notions, which most people now consider foolish, the Puritans had much in their minds and hearts that was of great value to the English nation. They feared God so much that they did not at all fear man, or aught that man could do to them.

Elizabeth treated them with great severity, because she had reason to believe that they were not at heart as submissive to her rule as the main body of her subjects in the Church of England. They looked upon the monarchs of this world as nothing more than common men and women, and what they suffered during her reign

made many of them take a dislike to the government of any king or queen at all. They wished for a republican form of government, in which the people themselves have all the power, and choose the head of the state by their own votes.

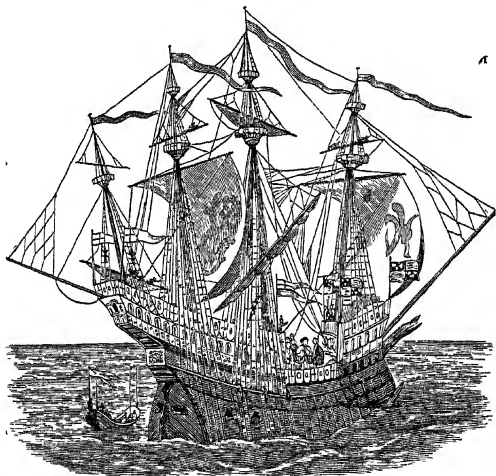
We shall see that, in Stuart times, the Puritans were among the first to take up arms against tyranny, and in this and other ways they were of great service to the country. They strove to judge what was right and wrong by the rules of the Bible alone. They were often mistaken in their views, but to them, at this day, we largely owe the freedom, good morals, and religious feeling by which Great Britain is marked among the nations of the world.

QUEEN ELIZABETH.—II.

Among the good things done by the queen and her ministers were the reform of the coinage, and the preparations made for the defence of the country against foreign foes. Under the sovereigns who came just before Elizabeth, the metal of silver coins had been mixed with so much zinc that they had only one-third of the value which they had when they were composed wholly of pure silver. All the base coinage was now called in, and exchanged at the mint for fine new coins of good metal. The labourer was no longer robbed in receiving, as twelve-pence, when he got his wages, a coin which would only buy one-third of a bushel of wheat, instead of the full bushel which twelve-pence ought to buy.

Factories were now first erected in England for making gunpowder and brass cannon, and many ships of war

were built. The founder of the modern navy of England was Henry VIII. One of the ships which he built, the *Henry Grace de Dieu*, was the most powerful war-vessel seen up to that time. It was he who established



The Henry Grace de Dieu

the Navy Office, or Admiralty, to take charge of the ships of war and the sailors of the royal navy. He also started dockyards at Deptford, Woolwich, and Portsmouth. In 1513 he formed the body of men skilled in marine affairs who are called the *Brethren of the Trinity House*.

This office has since that time done much good service, as it still does, in erecting beacons and lighthouses; picking out fit men as pilots to steer ships amid the dangers

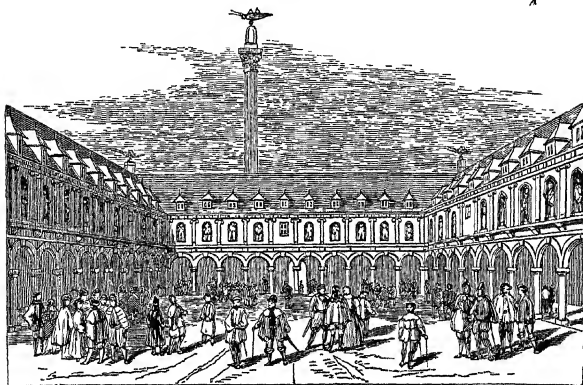
of our coasts and river-mouths; framing rules for the management of ships, and placing the marks called buoys over sand-banks and sunken rocks, so as to warn captains of these dangers of the sea. The English people, in Elizabeth's time, first became a great maritime nation, sailing to distant parts of the world, to Asia and America, seeking trade with foreign lands.

Guinea, on the western coast of Africa, and Brazil, in South America, were often visited by English vessels. In the Baltic and Mediterranean Seas ships of English build and crews began to carry on a large trade. The wool and hides produced at home were exchanged for pitch and furs, ivory and gold-dust, silks and wines, drugs and oils, and Turkey carpets. The cod-fishery of Newfoundland, and whale-hunting in the northern seas, began to add to the national wealth.

The troubles in the Low Countries, or Netherlands, now called Holland and Belgium, caused thousands of the merchants, manufacturers, and workmen to flee for safety to England. In this way the trade of the country was increased, and our people learned new modes of making money by the works of their hands. It was at this time that London became, as it remains, the greatest European market for the produce of all lands. In 1556 Sir Thomas Gresham, a famous merchant, planned and built a place of meeting for traders and dealers to talk over their business and make bargains. In 1570, when the queen paid a visit to this building, she gave it the name of "Royal Exchange".

The spirit of enterprise and adventure led to the formation of mercantile companies, with charters from the queen granting them special rights with regard to

the trade to foreign lands Among these were the Turkey Company and Russia Company, and the famous East India Company was founded at the end of the year 1600. Early in the following year a fleet of four ships sailed for the eastern seas, and trading-posts were established at several places. Two of the vessels



Gresham's Royal Exchange, London

returned to England with rich cargoes of pepper, cloves, cinnamon, and other spices, and this was the beginning of the vast trade which we now carry on with India, China, Japan, and other Asiatic countries.

The desire to discover a shorter way by sea to India than that round the Cape of Good Hope caused some of our bold mariners to sail for the north-west, into Arctic seas. In 1576 Martin Frobisher, a native of Yorkshire, left the Thames with three small vessels, carrying only thirty-four men, on a "first voyage of discovery of the

north-west passage". He was seeking to make his way to Asia round North America, not knowing that the sea in that quarter was almost always blocked with ice. He found the channel afterwards known as Hudson Strait. In 1585 John Davis, a native of Devonshire, reached the strait which still bears his name, and he also saw much of the coast of Greenland in this and other voyages.

QUEEN ELIZABETH.—III.

(1558-1587.)

The chief difficulties of Elizabeth's position lay in foreign affairs. Spain and Scotland were the two countries with which she and her ministers had to deal, and the dangers thence arising needed the use of their utmost watchfulness and skill. Philip II. of Spain, backed by the pope, was the powerful and determined foe of the English queen, both on personal and religious grounds. When she came to the throne he was good enough to ask her to marry him, offering her the honour of being his wife, on condition that she became a Catholic. He hoped that, with the combined wealth and power of Spain and England, he should become master of all Europe.

He was already the ruler of Spain, Portugal, the Netherlands, Sicily, and much of Italy. In Asia he possessed the Philippine Islands, rich settlements on the coast of India, and the Spice Islands now largely held by Holland. In America, Mexico and Peru enriched him with the silver of their mines, and his yearly revenue was about ten times that which England brought in to

Elizabeth. His army was the largest and the best in the world, remarkable alike for the training of the soldiers and the skill of the generals. His fleet was more powerful than that of any other country, and he is the only ruler of men in modern times who was ever at the same moment supreme both on land and sea.

On the continent of Europe, the followers of the two branches of the Christian religion, the Catholic and the Protestant, were in open conflict. A civil war between the two parties was raging in France, and Philip was trying to force his revolted subjects in the Netherlands back to the old faith. Those of the northern provinces, now Holland, had for the most part become Protestant, and they looked up to Elizabeth as the European head of the new religion. It was her position in this respect that roused against her papal enmity.

The queen and her Protestant subjects became objects of hatred to those who were striving to suppress the new religion by the free use of fire and sword. In 1566 a monk of very strict life, and zealous in the persecution of heretics, became pope as Pius V. He declared his wish to devote the treasures of the church, even to its chalices, or sacred cups used at the Mass, and its crucifixes, to carry a religious war into England. As he had no means of getting troops into the hated country which defied him, he strove by other methods to injure the great Protestant queen. In February, 1570, Pius issued against her his famous Bull (papal decree) of Deposition. In this document the pope sought to deprive her of all right to her kingdom. He declared that her subjects need not keep their oaths of allegiance, and bade them rise in rebellion against her power.

In April, 1571, Parliament replied to this Bull by passing a severe law against the pope and the Catholics. The penalties of high treason were thus threatened against anyone who, in various ways, helped the papal cause. All persons were forbidden to become Catholics, or to try to persuade anyone to follow the pope as head of the Christian church. In 1572 the infamous massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day (August 24th) destroyed thousands of the Huguenots in France.

In England, where Catholics were slowly coming over to the Protestant faith, great horror was aroused, and the enmity against the pope and his church became stronger than ever. Many "missionary priests" and Jesuits, or members of the Order of Jesus, founded in 1534, were sent over to England to win back the people, if possible, to the Catholic faith. In some cases these priests and Jesuits engaged in plots against the queen, and this caused the passing of new and severe laws against the Catholics, or the revival of former statutes.

QUEEN ELIZABETH.—IV.

(1558-1587 *Continued.*)

In 1577 a Catholic priest was hanged at Launceston, in Cornwall, for having upon his person a copy of the Bull of Deposition. Four years later Parliament again enacted the penalties of high treason against all persons who should claim the power, as given to them by the pope, of setting English subjects free from their oath of allegiance to the queen. Any priest who received a

person into the Church of Rome was liable to the same punishment. Attendance at the services of the Church of England was enforced by a monthly penalty of twenty pounds for absence, with imprisonment, and loss of goods and lands, if the fine were not paid.

Priests were seized and put upon the rack to make them confess offences against the law, and all attendance at Mass, and saying of Mass, were forbidden under heavy penalties. In 1581 a famous Jesuit named Edmond Campion was tried for high treason, and convicted and executed, under Edward III's Act, on the charge of plotting the queen's death. Priests who refused to acknowledge Elizabeth as lawful sovereign met with the same fate, and Jesuits and priests were at last hunted down like wild animals.

It is reckoned that over one hundred Catholic priests died during the last half of the reign for the crime of saying Mass and in other ways practising their own religion. Many more were executed on charges partly connected with plots against Elizabeth's power, and many others died in prison. These persons, along with Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher who died under Henry VIII., are now called by Catholics "the English martyrs", or witnesses unto death for the true faith of the church.

There can be no doubt that the cruel persecution of Catholics who were guilty of nothing but attachment to their own faith had a bad effect. In 1583, the chief minister, Lord Burleigh, begged the queen not to use severity against such Catholics as simply adhered to the pope, and refused to take the oath of supremacy, acknowledging her as "Head of the church". He declared

that he wished the Catholics to be dealt with only by preaching and teaching.

The denial of the queen's right to the throne was followed, among some of the Catholics, by direct plots against her life. In November, 1583, Francis Throgmorton was convicted and executed for his share in a conspiracy to murder the queen. This man was very friendly with Mendoza, the King of Spain's ambassador in London, and the seizure of his papers showed Walsingham, the Secretary of State, that an extensive and alarming plot existed. An invasion of England from France and the Netherlands had been planned, and sketches were found of English ports that were suitable for a foreign landing.

Prompt measures were taken by the Government in this state of affairs. The Spanish envoy was sent away from the country, though he declared that he knew nothing of the plot. Many Jesuits and priests were hanged, and suspected Catholic officials were removed from their posts. In 1584 an Act of Parliament ordered all Jesuits and Catholic priests to leave the kingdom within forty days, under the penalties of high treason. All persons who sheltered priests, by letting ~~them~~ hide in their houses, were to be severely punished.

In 1586 the spies of Walsingham discovered the most formidable plot that was ever formed against Elizabeth. A Catholic priest named John Ballard, in the summer and autumn of 1585, came across the Channel several times, and moved about England in the dress of an officer, and under the name of "Captain Fortescue". He was plotting the queen's murder, and was helped in this scheme by a Catholic named John Savage, who had

served in the Netherland wars. In England, a Derbyshire gentleman named Anthony Babington, and his friend Chidick Titchbourne, of Hampshire, eagerly joined the plot.

The cunning Walsingham bribed a man named Gifford to join the conspirators, in order to betray them, and procure for him full evidence of their guilt. Letters which passed to and fro were now opened, read, and copied by the secretary's agents, and when enough was known to prove the plotters' guilt, Walsingham had them all arrested. Babington, Ballard, and the other leading conspirators, some of whom were members of the queen's household, were seized. Babington, Ballard, Savage, and four others pleaded "guilty", Titchbourne and six others were convicted upon evidence given, and all the fourteen were put to death as traitors.

QUEEN ELIZABETH.—V.

(1558–1587 *Continued.*)

The Puritans hated the old Catholic faith and practice, and they disliked the Church of England, as finally settled by Elizabeth, because they thought that much of what they called "popish" had been kept in her services. As an example of what we mean, they objected to persons kneeling when they received the bread and wine at the communion-service. In their democratic spirit, or desire for power to be in the hands of the people as a body, they specially disliked to see a woman exercising power as the head of a national church.

They would not, however, take up arms, as the Scottish

people had done, against their queen, because she was, with all her faults, in their eyes the strong opponent of the hated pope. Elizabeth knew this, and so she persecuted them, as far as they could bear it, in order to force them to obey the law, and outwardly conform to or agree with the church practice and doctrine. Cecil (Lord Burleigh), Walsingham, and other members of the Council, in vain tried to restrain her in this ill-treatment of the Puritans. In 1565 she issued orders that none should preach without a license from the bishop, that all ministers should wear the surplice, and that people should kneel at the communion-service.

From this time, the body called "Nonconformists" or Dissenters began to arise. They were those who refused to obey the Act of Uniformity. The bishops were required by the queen to bring all offenders before an Ecclesiastical Commission, or body of judges appointed to carry out the laws respecting church affairs. Many able and excellent men were deprived of their livings as parish clergymen, and of other posts in the church. When the Nonconformists met for worship in assemblies of their own, they were attacked by persons sent out by the bishops, and taken to prison.

In 1577, Grindal, Archbishop of Canterbury, was suspended from his office because he seemed to be favourable to the Puritans, and in 1583, the bigoted Whitgift, as the new archbishop, began to treat them with much severity. The strength of the Nonconformists lay among the trading classes of the towns, and the smaller proprietors of land. All preaching, Bible-reading, and catechising, even in private houses, were forbidden, except among members of one family. The body of men called the

Court of High Commission, of whom twelve were bishops, was established, with very wide powers. Large numbers of Puritan clergy were driven from their livings, and some of them took up their pens and wrote sharp books and tracts against this tyranny.

Elizabeth used against these people a law which had been passed under her half-sister Mary. A Puritan named John Stubbs had his right hand struck off for writing a tract which the queen did not approve, and the printer suffered the same punishment. Another for a similar offence was hanged. In 1585, the Star Chamber, a court established under Henry VII, issued rules regulating the use of the printing-press in the country. No presses were allowed to be used except in London, Oxford, and Cambridge. Forbidden books were seized, the presses that printed them were destroyed, and the printers were brought before the Council for trial and punishment.

In 1593, a young Welshman, John Penry, was hanged on a charge of writing a tract against the bishops, and John Udall, a Puritan minister, died when he was in prison for the same offence. In the same year another severe law drove some thousands of the Nonconformists as exiles to Holland, and these people were the founders of the party called "Independents", which became so powerful in Stuart times.

This cruelty and folly shown in ill-treating people, Catholics and Puritans alike, for their conscientious religious opinions, and for the forms of worship in which these were expressed, is not a pleasant subject. There were, however, other matters in the England of Elizabeth's day beside persecution and plots, prisons, and racks.

There was the daily life of a nation growing into the strength that was to win perfect freedom at a later day. There were the intellect and the enterprise of men who, in writing and in fighting, in putting thought into books, and in sailing the seas, were to become famous among all nations as long as the world shall last.

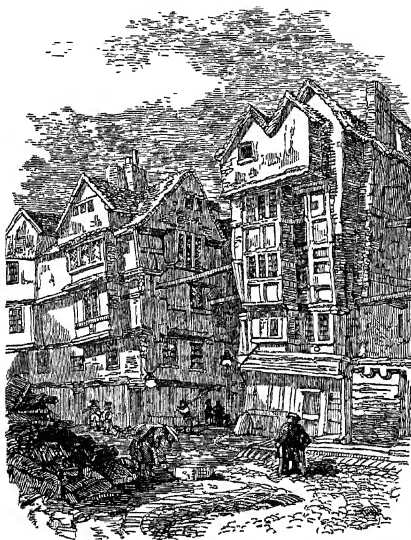
QUEEN ELIZABETH.—VI.

When we try to form a picture in our minds of what England was in the days of the great Tudor queen, we have to shut our eyes to very much of what now lies around us under Victoria. The whole number of people in the country was under five millions, or not more than London alone contains. London may have had 150,000 inhabitants, and was a walled city about two miles in circuit. The Strand, lined on each side by mansions of the nobles, led to the village of Charing, beyond which lay the separate city of Westminster, with its abbey and hall, and Whitehall Palace near the bank of the Thames.

The names of Moorfields, Spitalfields, Seffron Hill, Bethnal Green, and of many other places, are now those of either districts or streets in London covered by close-packed houses. Three hundred years ago they were really open spots, where the Londoners strolled to gather spring-flowers, or to shoot with bows and arrows, or to enjoy other sports. Clerkenwell was then a distant suburb, Islington a country village, Battersea and Chelsea were rural districts. The Thames was a pure stream, rich in salmon and other fish, and adorned between West-

minster and London, as well as in her upper waters, with the fair white form of many a swan.

Scarcely one of the great manufacturing towns of the Victorian age was then existing, except as a little village,



Old Houses called Butcher Row, which stood in the middle of the Strand.

or a place of two or three thousand people. The second town in the kingdom was York. Liverpool had only a few hundreds of people, instead of half a million, and these lived by their labours as fishermen, or as mariners doing a little coasting-trade. Birmingham was just becoming known for hardware, and Manchester made

some woollen goods. Norwich, and some of the towns in the West of England, were the chief places for the manufacture of woollen cloth of various kinds.

The sailors who drew near the coasts from abroad saw no lighthouse, with its brilliant rays, telling of the headland with its lower fringe of deadly rocks. A pot of burning pitch, or a light upon a church tower, alone warned the vessel of her peril, or showed the captain his position off the coast; and there were no buoys to mark the hidden sand-banks, and show the waterway into harbour. The traveller inland had to make his way slowly along rutty roads, narrow and full of holes, and often made impassable by flooded streams.

The wealthy traveller, with his servants in attendance, or the rich man's messenger, rode on horseback. The poor man trudged afoot, or, in the later part of the reign, might find a place within the clumsy wagon taking goods from town to town. The single pack-horse of the pedlar, or the long string of laden beasts that formed a merchant's caravan, did much of the internal trade. Much of the trade now carried on by means of written orders, railways, banking-cheques, or postal orders, was then conducted at local fairs and markets.

Where we now see a country nearly all inclosed, covered with corn and pasture, woodland and park, garden and game-preserve, there were then great wastes of marsh and moorland, far-stretching woods, and fenceless roads. Only about one-fourth of the land was tilled, and the upper class alone ate wheaten bread. The poor had loaves of barley or of rye, and, in times of scarcity, were forced to come to peas and beans and oats. Some of the fruits and vegetables, and a few of the flowers,

in the gardens of the Victorian age, were first seen in England during Tudor times.

The cherry, gooseberry, currant, various kinds of apples, new kinds of plums, walnut, apricot, carrot, turnip, and plants for salad, then began to grow on English soil. The hops of Surrey and Kent, first brought from Flanders, were used in brewing the foaming ale which was the breakfast-drink at a time when tea, coffee, and cocoa were unknown in Europe. The richer age of mining had not yet arrived. The mines of Cornwall, as of old, sent forth their tin and lead, and a little copper was obtained from Cumberland.

Newcastle sent coal by sea to London, where it was chiefly used in furnaces and forges. In Elizabeth's later days, it began to cook the dinners and to warm the chambers of the household. The iron of the period was produced in Sussex, Kent, and Surrey, and much of the wood then growing was used up as fuel for smelting the ore.

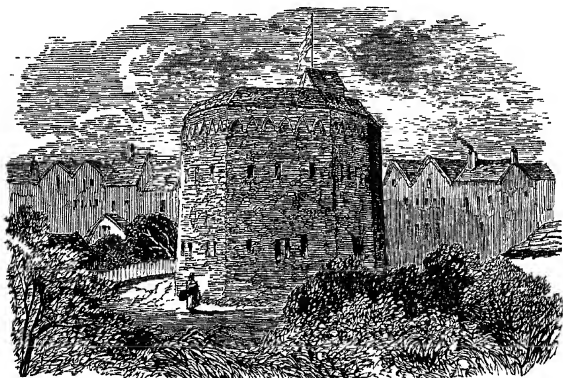
QUEEN ELIZABETH.—VII.

The chief evils of the time in England were the ignorance common in that age; roughness and cruelty in the treatment of human beings and animals; drunkenness and gaming. The doctors of Elizabeth's time did not know of the circulation of the blood in the body which they professed to tend and cure. Almost everyone believed in witchcraft, and many harmless old women suffered death, like poor Joan of Arc in France, because they were supposed to have dealings with the powers of evil. People believed in the existence of all kinds

of spirits, good and bad, fairies and imps, elves and goblins.

Around the roaring logs upon the winter-fire all classes talked much of ghosts, of signs of coming good or evil, of lucky dreams, of magic, and of other matters now justly regarded as foolish superstition.

At-school dull or idle children were cruelly thrashed,



The Bear Garden, Southwark

and animals were tortured in the name of "sport". Bear-baiting, bull-baiting, and cock-fighting were the delights of men and women of the highest rank. The Puritan preachers and writers had too much reason for their reproofs of gluttony and excessive drinking. With all its faults, it was a gay and glad time, when men and women, lads and lasses, made mirth with music and with dancing, upon the rushes of the torch-lit hall, and round the May-pole on the village green.

The queen made frequent "progresses", or journeys, through the kingdom, staying at the houses of some of her chief nobles, and taking great delight in stage-plays, and in the performances of "mummers" and "masquers", curiously dressed to represent animals and various kinds of real and unreal beings.

The best side of the training of the time is seen in the people's hearty enjoyment, as in this age, of the outdoor exercises fitted to produce a manly race. We have cricket, football, boating, and many other athletic sports. Elizabeth's subjects used, in the various classes of society, to shoot with bow or gun, to vault, run, leap, wrestle, swim, dance, hawk, hunt the stag, fox, and hare, and play at tennis and other games.

In dress, the queen set her courtiers the example of a costly and splendid attire. The gentlemen wore doublets of cloth, close-fitting garments covering the body from the neck to a little below the waist. Over these were velvet cloaks, trimmed with lace and clasped with gold. The hose or stockings were of silk or of a kind of velvet, of French or Italian make and fashion. A rapier or long light sword, in a gilded scabbard; shoes decked with silver buckles and with rosettes; a low-crowned feathered hat; rings on the fingers and in the ears; a ruff and chain upon the neck, complete the picture of the man of fashion in Elizabeth's age.

We must also remember that men and women, from the "tapster" who drew the ale, and the serving-maid and man who waited, to the noble in attendance on the sovereign, and the lady at her needlework or music in the manor-house or hall, all wore a dress which showed the station of the wearer.

There was more comfort than there had been in domestic life. The meanest houses now had chimneys, and the weary heads and limbs of toilers rested upon softer bedding than bags of chaff or mattresses stuffed with straw.

The houses became lighter through the larger use of glass for windows, and rugs and carpets, or floors of bare and polished oak, took the place of the former rush-strewn boards. Dishes and spoons of wood were changed for pewter or for silver. The walls of the best houses began to be adorned with rich tapestries, and with portraits and other pictures painted by German or Italian artists. Lord Salisbury's house at Hatfield, near London, which is open to the public for some months in the year, gives a good idea of the best kind of Elizabethan hall or mansion.

In the year 1601, the famous Poor-law of Elizabeth was passed, establishing the system of relief for the indigent which remained in force until 1834. Under this statute, every householder in every parish was to be taxed for the relief of the poor. The county justices or magistrates were to choose fit men in every parish to be "overseers of the poor", along with the churchwardens. These officials, with the consent of the justices, appointed the payment of poor-rates. The money thus raised was used in providing food for the helpless, in the apprenticing of children to various trades, and in finding work for the able by means of "a convenient stock of flax, hemp, wool, thread, iron, and other necessary ware and stuff". The intention of the act was good, but in the end it did much harm; for, as it practically gave everybody a claim for assistance, many idle people wilfully abstained from

work, preferring to live at the expense of the parish. Pauperism thus increased enormously in many parts of the country till the law was altered in the year 1834.

QUEEN ELIZABETH.—VIII.

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.

We have no space here to tell of the works of the great writers in prose and verse who made the reign of Elizabeth famous for all time. Shakespeare, Marlowe, and others wrote for the stage; Spenser and Ben Jonson were the chief poets; Hooker and Bacon left most valuable works in prose. We take Sir Francis Drake as foremost among the bold and adventurous men of the time who made themselves dreaded and hated by the Spaniards, by attacking them both in search of plunder and as enemies of their queen, their country, and their religion. This greatest of the Elizabethan "sea-dogs", as they have been called, was born about 1540 near Tavistock, in Devonshire, of middle-class parents.

At an ~~early~~ age he was put under the master of a small vessel, to learn the sailor's business, and soon showed his skill in handling sails and ropes. By his master's will he became, in his early manhood, owner of the craft, and for some years traded from port to port along the English coast, and across the narrow seas to France and Holland. Drake, however, had too "large a spirit", as a writer says, and too daring a temper, to be satisfied with so small a scene of action in life. He was roused by what he heard of the distant voyages, and

deeds against the Spaniards, of his kinsman Sir John Hawkins and other Devonshire men.

He longed to cross the Atlantic to the region called the "Spanish Main", the name given to the north coast of South America from the river Orinoco to Darien, and to



Sir Francis Drake.

the eastern coasts of Central America, then in the possession of Philip and his people. After sailing to the Guinea coast of western Africa, he made in 1567 a voyage to the West Indies with Hawkins, in command of a vessel called the *Judith*. They had very ill fortune in this expedition, and suffered heavy losses in men and property at the hands of the Spaniards. This only made Drake more determined in his attempts against the foe.

In 1570 and the following year he made voyages to the West Indies, obtaining some plunder, but being chiefly engaged in learning how he could do most damage to Spanish towns and trade. When his plans were prepared, in May, 1572, the Devonshire hero fitted out two small ships, the *Pasha* and *Swan*, with crews numbering only seventy-three men. With this little force, on July 29th, he landed at Nombre de Dios, on the coast of Central America, and captured the town, after a short and sharp fight. Drake was severely wounded, and it was only his fainting from loss of blood which prevented his taking a vast amount of treasure that the enemy managed to carry off beyond his reach.

He then sailed along the coast, burned the town of Porto Bello, and took and destroyed many Spanish ships. When he came to the Isthmus of Darien (now called Panama) he crossed the land until he reached the highest point of the ridge of hills between the Atlantic and the great western ocean. There he climbed a tree, from whose top, for the first time, he beheld the waters of the vast Pacific, and, as we read, "besought Almighty God of his goodness to give him life and leave to sail once in an English ship in that sea". After burning more Spanish vessels, and plundering a mule-train laden with gold and silver, he made for Devonshire again with abundance of spoils.

On Sunday, August 9th, 1573, Drake and his men reached Plymouth Sound. It was sermon-time in the churches of the little town, and the people were so excited by the news that most of them hurried out and left the preachers with empty benches, while they ran to the shore "to see the evidence of God's love and

blessing towards our gracious queen and country". A negro-slave who had been taken from the mule-train was presented to Elizabeth, and shown at the court as a curiosity then rarely seen by Englishmen. In 1577 the great navigator made ready for another and still more important expedition against Spanish trade and power.

Let us try to picture the man, before he sailed forth on his most famous voyage. Drake, now in the prime of his strength of body, was low of stature, well-formed, with a broad chest, and a very round or "bullet" head. His face was short and square, with high cheek-bones, broad temples, a broad high forehead, and keen gray steady eyes, unusually long. The small ears grew tight to the head; the thick lips were firm-looking, as if cut from granite; the mouth and chin, partly covered by moustache and beard, crisp and brown like the hair of the head, had a fierce and most determined expression.

His upper dress consisted of a loose, dark seaman's shirt, belted at the waist, with a plaited cord round the neck, carrying a ring in which, as he talked, he often slung one of his long fingers. At sea he wore a scarlet cap with a gold band. His whole figure and attitude were those of a man of boundless energy and courage, born to fight, to conquer, and command.

QUEEN ELIZABETH.—IX.

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE (*Continued*).

In 1577 Drake started from Plymouth with a squadron of five vessels, consisting of his own ship, the *Pelican*, of only 100 tons, the *Elizabeth*, of 80 tons, and three

smaller craft. The wind was fair for a southward and westward voyage, and the Cape de Verd Isles, on the west of Africa, were visited, and some of the Portuguese traders there, then subjects of the King of Spain, were plundered. Thence the voyagers crossed the Atlantic to Brazil, and sailed southwards to the river Plate, and then on to Port St. Julian, on the coast of Patagonia. At this place one of the gentleman volunteers on the voyage, Mr. Thomas Doughty, was tried, condemned, and beheaded on a charge of trying to raise a mutiny against the commander.

Some of the crews, who at first had numbered 166 men, had by this time died of disease, and two of the smaller ships, after transfer of their stores to the rest, were burned, by Drake's order. The three others, on August 20th, entered the Strait of Magellan. During the passage, lasting sixteen days, Drake changed the name of his ship from the *Pelican* to the *Golden Hind*, the crest of Sir Christopher Hatton, who had introduced him to the queen and obtained her permission for his voyage. On leaving the strait, the navigator, according to his prayer, was at last sailing the Pacific waters. A fierce storm arose, driving the *Golden Hind* far to the south. During the rough weather, which continued for over seven weeks, the ships were driven far apart.

The *Marigold* was never heard of again, having probably gone down with all hands; the captain of the *Elizabeth*, disgusted with his bad treatment from the ocean called Pacific, or "Peaceful", by Magellan, deserted his chief and returned to England. When the weather grew better, and a southerly wind arose, the *Golden Hind* sailed northwards along the Pacific coast of South America.

The capture of Spanish ships gave Drake possession of bars of silver, chests of coin, bales of silk, pearls, diamonds, and emeralds, golden ornaments, and rare porcelain or china-ware. After sailing up the coast of North America as far as to where British Columbia now begins, the great navigator resolved to return home across the Pacific.

By way of Java and the Cape of Good Hope, Drake and the surviving men entered Plymouth Sound, on September 26th, 1580, after a voyage of about two years and ten months. They were the first Englishmen that had ever sailed round the world. They were received with the greatest delight and pride by the people. The queen was greatly pleased, but was somewhat unwilling at first to openly greet and praise her daring subject, who had been plundering Spaniards at a time when the countries were not at war.

Philip was enraged, as well he might be, and caused his ambassador, Mendoza, to demand Drake's surrender for punishment. In April, 1581, the queen met this by visiting the *Pelican* (*GoldenHind*) at Deptford, in the Thames, and knighting her great commander as he knelt before her on the deck. She wore in her crown some of the jewels which he had brought. When Mendoza threatened that "matters would come to the cannon", she quietly said that if he dared to talk in that way, "she would fling him into a dungeon".

In 1585, with the queen's permission, Drake started again for the West Indies with a fleet of twenty-five ships. The Spanish dominions in that quarter were again plundered, and about two hundred English, the survivors of an attempt to colonize Virginia, were brought home. With them Drake brought home tobacco and

potatoes, then first made widely known in England. Many men had perished from yellow fever when the voyage ended in July, 1586. The next exploit of the Devonshire sea-captain was one for which he had more show of right than in some of his previous attacks on Spain. In the harbour of Cadiz lay many ships which were known to have been prepared for the invasion of England.

Drake started early in 1587, with thirty vessels, and carried out his scheme of "singeing the King of Spain's beard". With wonderful daring and skill, he sailed right into Cadiz harbour, and burned over a hundred store-ships, laden with corn, wine, fruits, and oil. In the Tagus, he received orders to return home, and on his way he destroyed a number of Spanish vessels in the harbour of Corunna. In the following year, 1588, as one of the chief commanders in the English fleet, he did splendid service, as we shall see, against the Spanish Armada.

Among his later exploits was the capture, off the Azores, of a great Spanish vessel with a crew of 600 men, and laden with pepper, calicoes, linen, damask, silks, and other valuable Eastern goods. The City of London bought the cargo for £140,000, and Drake and his men had a third share of this sum. For some years after the defeat of the Armada he led a peaceful life ashore, bringing a new water supply from Dartmoor to Plymouth, and being member for the town in the House of Commons.

His spirit, however, would not let him rest. In August, 1595, he sailed from Plymouth on his last expedition to the West Indies. This enterprise had very ill success. Hawkins, the second in command,

died off Porto Rico in November, and the great leader died near Porto Bello, in January, 1596. His body, inclosed in a leaden coffin, was buried in the sea, and thus, in the fine words of an unknown writer:

“The waves became his winding-sheet, the waters were his tomb;
But for his fame, the ocean sea was not sufficient room”.

QUEEN ELIZABETH—X.

MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS.

On February 8th, 1587, at the upper end of the great hall of Fotheringhay Castle, a few miles north of Oundle, in Northamptonshire, there was seen a scaffold, two feet in height and twelve feet in breadth. This erection was covered with black cloth; a railing ran round it, and on the scaffold were a low stool, a long cushion, and a great wooden block, all of these also covered with black. Beside the block stood two men, the upper part of their faces covered with black masks, and sharp shining axes lay ready to their hands. Many persons, knights and gentlemen, nobles sent by Elizabeth, and the Sheriff of Northamptonshire, stood in the hall, on or near the scaffold.

A queen came forth from an inner chamber, with Melvin, a gentleman grown gray in her service, two lady attendants, two doctors, and another old man. The queen was clad in the bright attire which in years long past she had been wont to wear on days of festivity. Melvin carrying the train of her robe, she stepped up on the scaffold with a cheerful face, and sat down on the stool. She was there to die, condemned by another

queen, Elizabeth of England, with the full approval of the majority of the English Parliament.

The doomed lady bade her attendants cease weeping, as, with crucifix in hand, she uttered prayers, first in Latin, with a steady voice. Then she prayed in English for "Christ's afflicted church", for her son, and for the Queen of England. A cloth was pinned over her face; she knelt down upon the cushion, repeating in Latin the opening words of the eleventh Psalm, "In the Lord put I my trust" Then groping with her hands for the block, she laid down her head, uttering, again in Latin, the sixth verse of the thirty-first Psalm, "Into thy hands, O Lord, I commend my spirit".

In two strokes her head was severed from her body, and then it was found that one poor servant had gone up on the scaffold without permission. Her little pet dog was found crouching amidst the folds of her dress, and we read that "afterwards he would not depart from the corpse" The remains of the beheaded lady were buried, five months afterwards, with great splendour in the cathedral at Peterborough. In 1612 they were removed to Henry VII.'s Chapel at Westminster Abbey, where they lie under a grand monument erected by her son, James VI. of Scotland, James I. of England.

This event, the death of one queen by order of another, is a unique occurrence in European history. Never before or since that dismal day at Fotheringhay Castle did a like thing happen. We must go back for many years to trace the events which brought about this terrible ending for the beautiful, as is said, and certainly most able and charming Queen of Scotland, who thus perished with calm courage, after a life of many troubles,



and after over eighteen years' imprisonment in England.

The old enmity between Scotland and England, caused by the Scottish alliance with France in the days of Edward III., and by the Scottish aid given to France during the reigns of Henry V. and Henry VI., did not end with the marriage of Henry VII.'s daughter Margaret to James IV. of Scotland. This marriage made Henry VIII. the brother-in-law of James, but in 1513, the Scottish king, when Henry was at war with France, invaded England with a great army. He was met by an English force at Flodden, in Northumberland, near the foot of the Cheviot Hills.

The Scots there suffered the worst defeat in all their history. Before the day was done, thousands of their fighting-men, and all their best and bravest nobles, lay dead upon the field. The king himself was among the slain, leaving a son two years old, who succeeded him as James V. Towards the end of Henry's reign, in 1542, the troops of this young king were defeated at Solway Moss, in the north of Cumberland. He died of grief and shame soon after the battle, leaving a baby daughter, Mary Stuart, who thus became Queen of Scotland, and was sent, a few years later, to France.

Before this took place the little queen had become the cause of further warfare between the English and Scots. The Duke of Somerset, ruling as "Protector" in England for Edward VI., tried to force on the Scottish people an arrangement for a marriage, at some future day, between Edward, then ten years old, and Mary Stuart, who was nearly five. In September, 1547, the Scots were defeated with great slaughter at the battle of

Pinkie in Midlothian (county of Edinburgh), and it was then that the Scottish Parliament sent Mary abroad for safety. In due time she married the son of the French king.

QUEEN ELIZABETH.—XI.

MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS (*Continued*)

The young Scottish queen, in 1559, became queen-consort of France, on the accession of her husband as Francis II., and they assumed also the title and arms of King and Queen of England. The throne of England was claimed for and by Mary Stuart, on the ground of her descent from Henry VII., through his daughter Margaret. Elizabeth was granddaughter of Henry VII., but Mary and her party said that she had no right to the throne, because her father, Henry VIII., had never been, by the laws of the Catholic Church, married to her mother, Anne Boleyn.

It is certain, however, that Elizabeth was truly and justly queen of England, because Parliament had given Henry VIII. power to name his own successors, and he had appointed Elizabeth to reign next after Edward and Mary if they left no children, which we know was the case. From this time Elizabeth became an enemy to Mary, Queen of Scots. In December², 1560, Mary became a widow by the death of her husband, Francis II. of France, and in August, 1561, at the age of nearly nineteen, she landed at Leith to assume power in Scotland.

As a strict Catholic she was soon involved in trouble with her own subjects, most of whom were Protestants

In 1565 she married a man of worthless character, whose conduct helped to bring her to ruin. This was her first cousin, Lord Darnley, a descendant of Henry VII., and ranking next to Mary in claims to the English throne. Elizabeth was much annoyed by this marriage, and still more when Mary claimed that her succession to the throne of England, after Elizabeth's death, should now be openly acknowledged.

In February, 1567, Darnley was murdered through the agency of Bothwell, a Scottish noble, who, a few months afterwards, married the queen. A civil war followed. Mary was imprisoned in Lochleven Castle, and compelled to resign the crown in favour of her infant son. Defeated by the Regent in May, 1568, at Langside, near Glasgow, Mary fled for refuge to England. She was a very dangerous and troublesome visitor, whom Elizabeth at once treated as a prisoner. She would not help her to recover her power in Scotland, nor would she let her retire to France. The Scottish queen was removed from one place of confinement to another, and there is no doubt that, wherever she was staying, she was corresponding with Elizabeth's enemies both in England and abroad.

In 1569 the Duke of Norfolk formed a plan for, marrying her, hoping through her to reach the English throne some day as king-consort. Many Protestants as well as Catholics were involved in this conspiracy, but it was discovered, and Norfolk was sent to the Tower. Then some Catholic lords rose in the northern counties, and, seizing the city of Durham, they destroyed the Bibles and new service-books, and restored the Mass at the Cathedral. The revolt was soon put down. The

leaders escaped to Scotland, and some hundreds of the country-folk whom they had gathered were executed.

In August, 1570, the Duke of Norfolk was set free on promising solemnly to have no more dealings with Mary Stuart. In the very next year he was found again planning his own marriage with her, the seizure of Elizabeth, and the invasion of England by the Duke of Alva, a famous general of Philip of Spain. There could be only one punishment for such guilt, and the duke, unanimously convicted of high treason by the House of Lords, was beheaded on Tower Hill in June, 1572.

An Act of Parliament, in 1585, was specially aimed at Queen Mary, in whose favour new Catholic plots had been formed. It was declared that, if there were any invasion or rebellion made by or for any person claiming the crown after Elizabeth's death, any person convicted of being aware of the plot, should be excluded from the throne, and be liable to the penalty of death.

Mary Stuart, under the Act just named, was tried in October, 1586, before thirty-six nobles and members of the Council, on a charge of being concerned in Babington's conspiracy. It seems certain that she knew of the intended invasion of England, and offered to help it. Beyond that we can be certain of nothing as to her guilt. Her judges declared that some letters, which do not now exist, proved her to be a party to the plot for murdering Elizabeth. They pronounced her to have had a guilty knowledge of all Babington's plans, and in November, 1586, both Houses of Parliament agreed that her condemnation was just, and demanded her speedy execution as "the only possible means to provide for your Majesty's safety".

QUEEN ELIZABETH.—XII.

THE ARMADA.

Philip of Spain assigned as one reason for his attack upon England his legal claim to the throne of that country. In 1585, James VI. of Scotland, in order to please Elizabeth, had finally given up the cause of his mother, Mary Stuart. That hapless lady, in her natural anger, had uttered fierce words against her son, and had made Philip heir to her own claims to the English throne. The Spanish king was also greatly enraged by the help which English volunteers, as well as some of the queen's troops, had given to his revolted subjects in the Netherlands. He was still more angry at the insults and injuries which his power and trade had received from the attacks of men like Drake.

The English queen would give him no redress for these wrongs. When he gave orders for the seizure of English vessels and property throughout all his wide dominions, Elizabeth gave her subjects permission to take Spanish ships and merchandise in any part of the globe. In 1584 Philip began to prepare ships, stores, and men for a great armament. With this he hoped to conquer the island where the people dwelt who defied his power, and had abandoned the faith of what he held to be the one true church.

The power of the Spanish sovereign was truly formidable. Fifty thousand soldiers, of the highest courage and skill, were ready to be placed under the command of the greatest general of that age, Alexander Farnese, Prince of Parma, governor of the Spanish

Netherlands. Philip's war-galleys, driven by sails and oars, had command of the Mediterranean Sea, and the great ships called galleons were so powerful as to be defied by only one nation of daring assailants on the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. The Catholics of Europe looked on Philip as the champion of their church, and hoped to see in the conquest of England the death-blow to Protestantism.

The work done by Drake in Cadiz harbour in 1587, and the death of the chief Spanish admiral, Santa Cruz, delayed for a year the coming of the Armada, a Spanish expression meaning "armed fleet". We may here remark that it is not true that Philip or any of his commanders or ministers showed their pride and certainty of victory against England by the use of the word "Invincible". The word is found in none of his many letters, and the fleet is always spoken of as "The Grand Fleet". It is also untrue that the defeat of the Armada was due to what has so long been called "the heaven-sent storm".

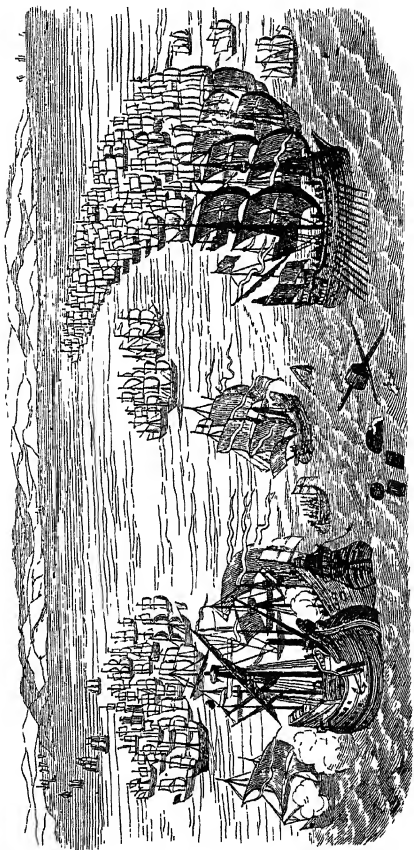
The Spaniards were routed after several days of battle, in which they lost many ships and thousands of men by the skill, seamanship, courage, and superior gunnery of British sailors. It has now also been discovered that the main body of the two fleets was more nearly equal in tonnage and strength than has been generally thought by Englishmen, though the Spaniards had, beyond doubt, far more ships and men.

The plan formed was for the great hostile fleet to drive the English vessels from the Strait of Dover, and from the nearest parts of the English Channel and the North Sea. The army under the Prince of Parma's command could then safely cross in the flat-bottomed boats pre-

pared for them, and it was hoped that these men would master all the forces brought against them by the hated islanders. We cannot tell what the end would have been. The matter was never tried, for not a single Spaniard landed on any part of the British Isles except as a prisoner of war, or as a man escaped from shipwreck, or as a corpse tossed ashore by the waves.

It was on July 19th, 1588, that the Spanish fleet entered the English Channel, sailing in a crescent seven miles wide from horn to horn. The armament numbered 134 vessels, mostly of large size, and included many war-galleys from the Mediterranean squadron. We can give no account of the exact number of the English vessels. Those of the royal navy engaged were 34, including the *Triumph* of 1100 tons, two of 900 tons, three of 800, three of 600, four of 500, two of 400, and three of 300 to 350 tons. These eighteen large ships, as ships of war were then, formed the chief line of battle. There was also a ship of 240 tons, and fifteen others from 160 down to 20 tons.

The rest of the English fleet was made up of vessels supplied by the zealous patriotism of noblemen, wealthy merchants, and seaport towns. We may mention that our vessels in this conflict carried heavier guns than those used at a later day under Nelson and our most famous admirals. The ten largest ships had among them 26 cannon, each throwing a shot of 66 lbs. in weight. There were in the twelve largest ships 54 cannon, firing 32-lb. shot, the largest size in Nelson's day, and many smaller guns firing shot from 17 lbs. to $3\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. in weight.



The Spanish Armada.—(From an old Print.)

QUEEN ELIZABETH.—XIII.

THE ARMADA (*Continued*).

Charles Kingsley, in *Westward Ho*, a book which all British boys should read, shows us the group of great sea-captains gathered on the bowling-green of the Hoe, an open space near the citadel at Plymouth. There are Drake and Frobisher, Walter Raleigh and Sir Richard Grenville, John Hawkins and John Davis, and many more, with the chief commander of the fleet, Lord Charles Howard of Effingham, a loyal Catholic, who is high-admiral of England.

When the news of the Armada's approach was brought by a light English vessel which had escaped from pursuit, all was hurry and bustle throughout the land.

The men at Plymouth rushed on board their vessels to begin one of the most important naval contests of all history, a fight for religion, and for our life and existence as an independent nation. It was a struggle in which defeat meant utter ruin for us, and the victory won, under the blessing of heaven, made England at once the foremost naval power of the world. It then appeared that England and not Spain was to be the great colonizing nation of the future. A splendid picture of the way in which England met the danger has been drawn by Lord Macaulay in his verses called *The Armada*.

Mounted men rode off "with loose rein and bloody spur" to carry the news inland. In every county-town the sheriff, with drums beating in front, and halberdiers or pikemen marching behind, came to set up the queen's standard in the market-place. The beacon-fire was lighted

on the roof of the stately hall at Mount Edgecumbe, on the Cornish coast beyond Plymouth Sound. This signal of the foe's approach was borne, by the lighting of other fires on the hills inland and on the cliffs, through the southern counties to London.

"The sentinel on Whitehall gate looked forth into the night,
And saw o'erhanging Richmond Hill the streak of blood-red light."

Then the royal city woke to the sound of bugles and the roar of cannon. The bells of every steeple gave forth the clang of alarm. The train-bands, or militia, of London gathered in their thousands, and with "the rush of hurrying feet, the broad streams of pikes and flags rushed down each roaring street". A camp was formed at Tilbury Fort in Essex, and the beacon-fires bore the news from tower to tower, and hill to hill, till "the red glare on Skiddaw roused the burghers of Carlisle". Let us now see how our English sailors welcomed the enemy's fleet.

Sir John Hawkins, to whose ability and zeal the efficiency of the fleet was mainly due, hoisted his flag as commander on board the *Victory* of 800 tons. Lord Howard had the *Ark Royal*, of the same tonnage. Sir Francis Drake commanded the *Revenge*, a 500-ton ship, and also had under his orders a number of armed merchant-vessels. Drake was vice-admiral, or second in command with Lord Howard, and Hawkins was rear-admiral, or third in rank. A squadron of three large and some smaller vessels, under Lord Henry Seymour, was stationed off Calais to watch the movements of the Duke of Parma, whose army was assembling at Dunkirk.

On July 20th, 1588, the Armada was off the Lizard.

The English ships put to sea from Plymouth Sound, and allowing the enemy to pass up Channel, fiercely attacked their rear. The smaller and better-managed English vessels had the advantage of the wind, and sailed round and round the bulky galleons with their towering sterns.



Sir John Hawkins.

They thus kept advancing and retiring at will, pouring in shot upon the Spaniards' crowded decks, while the high-placed enemy's guns sent much of their fire over the low-lying hulls of our ships. At dead of night on the 21st, the sky was lighted up from the blaze of a Spanish ship, carrying the flag of one of their admirals. The vessel was abandoned, and taken by our men to Weymouth.

QUEEN ELIZABETH.—XIV.

THE ARMADA (*Continued*).

Drake, meanwhile, ever hard at work, had received the surrender of another great Spanish vessel, and towed his prize into Dartmouth harbour. A desperate action was fought all the afternoon of the 23rd, and the enemy were very roughly handled. During the 24th it was almost a dead calm, and both sides were occupied in refitting their ships, Lord Howard now arranging his fleet in four divisions. On July 25th hard fighting took place off the Isle of Wight, the high-admiral leading his ships into the very centre of the Spanish fleet. The *Ark Royal*, Howard's vessel, was now seriously injured, through her stern being "rammed" by a great Spanish vessel, which unshipped the rudder.

The *Triumph* was also much damaged by the enemy's fire, but another Spanish ship was taken, and the enemy grew hourly more daunted by the daring of the English mariners. On the 26th and 27th there was no fighting, both fleets moving up Channel to the Strait of Dover, and Lord Howard being busy with preparations for a final attack. On the 27th the Spaniards and the English were anchored, within half a mile of each other, in Calais Roads. Beyond the Strait lay a strong Dutch squadron, with our ships under Lord Henry Seymour.

The Spanish admiral-in-chief, the Duke of Medina Sidonia, had been grievously disappointed with events. He knew nothing of naval warfare, and those who had sent him had led him to believe that the English and Dutch would run at the mere sight of his enormous

invading force. Instead of that, the British, like bull-dogs, had hung on their foe all the way up the Channel, capturing and destroying some, and disabling far more, of his ships. He was now to be assailed by a new device



Ships of Spain (fifteenth century).

On the evening of July 28th eight English ships, filled with explosives, were set alight, and sent drifting down with wind and tide among the crowded Spanish vessels.

All was at once confusion and alarm in the enemy's fleet. Their anchor cables were cut, and the ships fled in different directions, while one large vessel went on shore at Calais, and every man on board was drowned. On the 29th the English, led by Howard and Drake, made a fierce attack. Some of the enemy's ships were

captured, others went ashore on the coast of Flanders. On the 30th a gale from the south-west began to blow, and the Spanish admiral, having still a hundred ships afloat, resolved to make his way back to Spain by running before the storm and rounding the north of Scotland.

"The winds of heaven completed the ruin of the invaders of England. The rocky shores of Norway and the Hebrides, of Ulster and Connaught, were strewn with Spanish

wrecks, and only fifty-three shattered hulls made their way back to Spain. Eighty-one vessels had perished, with about 14,000 soldiers, besides the mariners who tended the sails of the galleons, and the rowers who worked the oars of the great galleys. On September 8th eleven great banners, taken from Spanish ships, were displayed to the view of the Londoners. On Sunday, November 24th, Elizabeth, splendidly attired, rode in a chariot amid her victorious captains to St. Paul's, and there joined her people in a solemn service of thanksgiving.

As Philip was known to be preparing to make another attempt, the English people did not fail to follow up the advantage they had gained by the destruction of the great fleet. In the following year, 1589, Drake took command of six ships, with a large body of troops on board, including the brilliant young Earl of Essex, the queen's favourite. He burnt some ships at Corunna, and plundered the neighbouring country. In 1596 one of the last efforts made against Philip was attended by the most splendid success. Another armada was preparing at Cadiz, and English seamen and soldiers attacked it there.

Lord Howard of Effingham commanded the great fleet which sailed from Plymouth on June 1st. A force of 7000 soldiers was on board, under the Earl of Essex, and the armament was aided by a Dutch squadron. On arrival at Cadiz, the impetuous valour of Raleigh and Essex forced the Spanish admiral, Sidonia, to set fire to all his ships of war rather than see them in English hands.

Essex then led his troops to the assault of the strong

works of the town. When the issue seemed for a moment doubtful, he flung his own standard over the wall and fiercely attacked the gate. A way was made by shot and sword against a swarming host of foes. The town was taken, plundered, and burnt, and the expedition returned home after inflicting a loss amounting to several millions of pounds in value. The death of Philip in 1598 put an end to the war with Spain.

THE CONQUEST OF IRELAND.

(1166-1317)

From early times Ireland was peopled by tribes of Celts, speaking the language (Erse or Irish) still used by many in the south and west. About the middle of the fifth century, St Patrick, the Apostle of Ireland, introduced Christianity, and some knowledge and civilization. The country became famous for learning, and the monasteries or religious houses sent forth preachers and teachers to continental Europe. The tribal system, and the constant wars between petty kings or chiefs, prevented the development of the country.

The invasions of the Danes drove the people back into an almost barbarous condition. For two centuries they ravaged the land, and founded settlements at Dublin, Cork, Limerick, Waterford, and Wexford. In the latter part of the twelfth century, when Henry II. was reigning in England, there were five kings ruling in Ireland—the kings of Munster, Leinster, Ulster, Connaught, and Meath. In 1168 Dermot, King of Leinster, driven from his lands by a rival chieftain, obtained leave from

Henry to enlist adventurers for the recovery of his dominions.

He obtained the help of a Norman noble, Richard de Clare (surnamed "Strongbow"), Earl of Pembroke, and of two knights of South Wales, Robert Fitz-Stephen and Maurice Fitz-Gerald. De Clare was a man of ruined fortunes, and it was arranged that, in return for his help, he should marry Dermot's daughter, and succeed him, on his death, as king of Leinster. Fitz-Stephen, with a small force of knights, men-at-arms, and archers, was the first to cross the sea from Wales. He easily scattered the ill-armed Irish rabble, and took the town of Wexford.

In the following year, 1169, Fitz-Gerald arrived in Ireland with a fresh force, and in 1170 Strongbow, landing near Waterford with a large body of men, captured that town and Dublin, and married Dermot's daughter Eva. In the following year, on her father's death, he duly became king of Leinster. The jealousy of Henry II. was now aroused. It is said that many years before this he had obtained from Pope Adrian IV. (Nicholas Breakspear, the only Englishman that ever held that high position) a "Bull" permitting him to conquer Ireland for the church and for himself. He ordered Strongbow and his followers to return to England, but the earl appeased him by doing homage for his kingdom.

In 1172 Henry went over with an army, and received homage from most of the chiefs. Three years later he claimed the "lordship" or sovereignty of Ireland, under Pope Adrian's "Bull", and then the King of Connaught was made his deputy, with rule over the other chiefs,

while all were forced to pay tribute to the English king. In 1177 a lord-deputy named Hugh de Lacy was sent over from England, and had great success in gaining over and pacifying the natives. In 1185 he was succeeded by Prince John (afterwards the wicked king), who went over with a large force, and was a thorough failure as a ruler.

His wise father, Henry, during his six months' stay in Ireland, had placed the chiefs at his own table, and treated them with the utmost courtesy and kindness. The wanton insolence of the king's youngest son, when the chiefs of Leinster came to do homage, encouraged his silk-clad attendants to mock at the Irish dress of homespun wool, and to pluck their bushy beards. The country was soon roused to revolt by ill-treatment, and the prince was recalled in less than a year. Ireland was not really conquered by England at this early time. A small amount of territory was held by the English round the towns of Dublin, Wexford, Waterford, Drogheda, and Cork.

This part of the country became known as *The English Pale*, or *The Pale*, in the sense of "enclosure" or "district". Outside this region all was disorder, while the nobles within the Pale were at war among themselves, and treated the English settlers with injustice and cruelty. The English in time fell into the barbarous ways of the natives, and in 1210 King John was obliged, in a fierce and skilful campaign, to bring his barons in Ireland back to their allegiance towards himself. On his departure, there was constant warfare between the English and Irish. In 1316 Edward Bruce, brother of King Robert, invaded the country, but was wholly defeated

and slain with his Irish followers by the people of the Pale in the following year.

THE CONQUEST OF IRELAND (*Continued*).

(1367-1602.)

Under Edward III. many of the barons in Ireland declared themselves independent of England, and adopted the Irish laws, language, dress, and customs. In 1367, the law called the Statute of Kilkenny was passed, forbidding all Irish usages, and making it treason to follow native law, or to marry people of Irish blood. This did not prevent the mingling of the races, and the English became, to a large extent, Irish in their race and ways of life. The English hold upon Ireland grew weaker, and at last some of the Irish chiefs received tribute as payment to keep from attacking those who lived within the Pale.

In 1449 Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York, whom we have seen in the wars of the Roses, went over as ruler for Henry VI. His firm and kindly treatment of the people won favour from all, and it was for this reason that, during the civil war for the crown, the Irish supported the Yorkist cause. At this time the chief noble families in the country were the Fitz-Geralds or Geraldines, headed by the Earls of Desmond and Kildare, and the Butlers, their old foes, led by the Earl of Ormond. There was a parliament, representing the people of the Pale, established in 1367.

When we come to Tudor times, we find Henry VII. making an attempt to reduce the Pale, at any rate, to

order. In 1494 Sir Edward Poynings became lord-deputy, or governor, for the king. Under him a parliament at Drogheda passed the two famous Poynings' Laws or Acts, or Statutes of Drogheda. It was thus laid down that all English laws were to be obeyed in Ireland, and that no parliament could be held in Ireland, and no law passed, without the approval of the king and council in England.

It was under Henry VIII. that the first real attempt was made to master Ireland as a whole, and reduce the country to order. The utmost confusion and misery prevailed, while the nobles of English descent and the Irish chiefs quarrelled with each other, and only agreed in oppressing the Irish peasantry. In 1535 Henry's lord-deputy, Sir William Skeffington, dealt severely with a revolt of the Fitzgeralds. Nearly all the males of the Earl of Kildare's family were taken and put to death, and in 1541 the English sovereign took, with some show of reality, the title of "King of Ireland".

There, as in England, Henry swept away papal rule, but all attempts to make the people Protestants failed. Under Elizabeth, the actual conquest of Ireland was made, and the country was brought under the control of the English sovereigns. In 1565 a rebellion arose in Ulster, led by a man named Shan O'Neil, who claimed to be Earl of Tyrone. Lord Sussex, the English governor, was defeated, but order was restored under his successor, Sir Henry Sidney. For many years the most savage warfare went on at intervals between the natives and the troops of Elizabeth's governors, and in 1573 nearly all the south and west of the country was still unsubdued.

The Spaniards from time to time helped the Irish

people, but Lord Grey, in 1580, gave a severe lesson to the invaders by the capture of the fort at Smerwick, in Kerry, when 600 Spanish and Italian prisoners were put to death. The Earl of Desmond, a Fitzgerald or Geraldine, rose in Munster, and was killed in 1583, with a great number of his followers. The last national effort against English rule was the great rebellion headed, in 1594, by Hugh O'Neil, Earl of Tyrone. Philip of Spain supplied arms and ammunition, and the earl kept the field for eight years, gaining a great victory in 1598 over the queen's troops, of whom 1500 with their leader were slain.

In 1599 the queen's favourite, Lord Essex, went over and failed, but at last the right man was found in Lord Mountjoy. He had no experience in war, but won complete success by his wisdom, vigour, and determination. Spaniards had again landed in Ireland to help the people, and 4000 men took up a strong position at Kinsale, on the south coast. Tyrone (O'Neil) arrived with a large force, but both he and the invaders were completely defeated in 1602. The great Irish earl then made complete submission to the queen.

The country was secured by the erection of forts, and the Irish people, greatly reduced in numbers and spirit by war, and through the wasting of the land which caused famine, were at last brought completely under foreign rule. Thus at the close of Elizabeth's reign, when she was succeeded on the English throne by James VI. of Scotland, the whole of the British Isles came under the rule of one monarch. •

SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

(1552-1618.)

This distinguished man, one of the most remarkable in the Elizabethan age, was one who did many things and played many parts in life. He was a brave soldier, a daring and skilful navigator and commander at sea. He was the first Englishman to found a colony or settlement on the mainland of North America, now peopled by so many millions of our race. He was an excellent Greek and Latin scholar, and a writer of verses so good that Spenser called him the "Summer's Nightingale".

He left a noble specimen of English prose in his unfinished *History of the World*, besides other interesting and valuable works. He was an able member of the House of Commons, and one of the finest of the gaily-dressed courtiers who attended Queen Elizabeth. Walter Raleigh, the second son of his father's third wife, was born at the manor-house of Hayes, near Budleigh, in the south-east of Devonshire, in 1552, six years before Elizabeth came to the throne. At fourteen years of age he became a student at Oriel College, Oxford, but his restless and adventurous spirit led him away to more stirring scenes.

About 1569, when he was only seventeen, he made one of a troop of a hundred gentlemen volunteers whom the queen allowed to go to France to help the Huguenots in their war against the Catholics. Of his life at this time we know little, except that he was present at the battle of Moncontour, in the west of France, where the Huguenots, in October, 1569, were defeated by the Catholics. We do

not know how he first came under the notice of Elizabeth. One story says that he laid down his rich velvet cloak that the queen might pass over a muddy place without soiling her shoes. Another story tells us of his writing on a pane of glass, with a diamond ring which the queen



Sir Walter Raleigh

had given him, the words, "Fain would I climb, but that I fear to fall", meaning that he would like to try and gain the queen's favour, and become a great man at court if he could. The queen, who already thought well of the young gentleman from Devonshire, wrote underneath it, with one of her rings, "If thy heart fail thee, climb not at all".

The appearance and manners of Raleigh were such as Elizabeth liked and admired. Tall in figure, and with a

handsome face and high forehead, he had a rich colour, dark hair, and a bold and determined look. His talk was very witty and clever, and the manly beauty of his person was improved, according to the taste of his sovereign, by the splendid style of his silken and jewelled dress. In 1578 we find the soldier and courtier turning to the sea for new excitement and work, and spending two years on the Atlantic and in America with his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, who made a vain attempt at settlement in North America.

In 1580 Raleigh went to Ireland on service, under Lord Grey, against the people and their Spanish friends, and landed at Cork in command of a body of one hundred foot-soldiers, mostly gentlemen volunteers. He soon became noted for his daring and skill, and took part in the assault and capture of the fort at Smerwick which has been already described. His services and attractive person and manners won for him from Elizabeth the honour of knighthood, and the captaincy of the royal guard, with the further reward of a large grant of Irish lands.

The faults of this great Englishman are thought to have been a proud and impatient temper, which made for him many enemies, and an unsteadiness of character and lack of sound judgment which led him into enterprises, that could not succeed. By the favour of the queen Raleigh was at one time a wealthy man. He had about £2000 a year from the license-duty of one pound yearly paid him by every seller of wine in England. In March, 1584, he received the grant of license to export woollen broadcloths, yielding nearly £4000 in the first year. In 1585 he became Lieutenant or Governor of Cornwall, Vice-admiral of Devonshire and Cornwall, and one of

the two members for his native county in the House of Commons.

He wasted much wealth in two luckless attempts to plant a colony in North America. In April, 1584, he sent out a fleet to explore the coast to the north of Florida, and the voyagers took possession of a district to which Elizabeth, the great unwedded queen, allowed the name "Virginia" to be given. The settlers were unable to contend with the Indians, and the first body of emigrants was brought away, as we saw, by the ships of Sir Francis Drake.

In 1587 Raleigh sent out three more ships, with 150 colonists, including 17 women. Three years later an English vessel arrived to find that all had been killed or driven away or made captive by the Indians. The introduction of the potato and of tobacco to England was one of the results of these Virginian enterprises. The name of their author remains in that of "Raleigh", capital of the state of North Carolina. The Spanish invasion of 1588 gave him more useful work to do at home.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH (*Continued*).

During that glorious time of toil and danger Raleigh distinguished himself greatly against the foe. The noblemen and gentlemen who fitted out ships at their own expense put out to sea on board of the volunteer squadron under his command, and nobly did their duty under so gallant and able a leader. In 1589 we find him on his estates in the south of Ireland, planting the first potatoes that ever grew on Irish soil. He formed a

warm friendship there with the great poet Spenser, and introduced him to Elizabeth, who commanded the publication of his famous poem, the *Faerie Queene*.

In 1592 Raleigh married Miss Bessy Throckmorton, one of the queen's maids-of-honour, and lived for two quiet happy years at his fine castle and park of Sherborne, in Dorsetshire, engaged in building and gardening for the improvement of the estate. Three years later we find him afloat again, aroused by stories of gold to be obtained in abundance in the region along the river Orinoco, in South America. In February, 1595, he sailed thither with five ships, and having explored the coasts of Trinidad, went up the river and saw the land with its glorious tropical plants and trees. In 1596 he published a fine account of the country, now known as Guiana, which he thus visited.

In June of the same year we find Raleigh engaged on the expedition of Lords Howard and Essex against Cadiz. The plan of action which there met with success so great against the foes of his country and his queen was chiefly due to Raleigh's advice. In 1597 he made a voyage, with naval and land forces, to the Azores, and captured, after hard fighting, the chief town on the Isle of Fayal. In 1600 he became for three years governor of Jersey, and, did much to improve the trade of the island and to relieve the people from heavy taxes.

The prosperity of Raleigh's life ended with the accession of James of Scotland to the English throne. The feeling of the new sovereign was turned against him by Sir Robert Cecil, the chief minister, and by other enemies. In a short time he was deprived of his captaincy of the royal guard and other offices. Then he

was accused, most probably falsely, of sharing in plots for the removal of James from power, and for placing on the throne the Lady Arabella Stuart, another descendant of Margaret Tudor, daughter of Henry VII.

Amidst the insults showered on him, at the trial for treason, by the Attorney-General, Sir Edward Coke, Raleigh defended himself from eight in the morning until nearly midnight with the utmost skill and courage. He was with the grossest injustice, and on no proper evidence, condemned to death, but meantime he was only deprived of his property and imprisoned. His castle and estate at Sherborne were taken from his wife and children, and Raleigh was sent to the Tower. There he wrote his *History of the World*, varying this work with experiments in chemistry. The king's eldest son, Henry, often visited the prisoner, whom he pitied and admired, saying, "No man but my father would keep such a bird in a cage".

In 1617 he was released by James in order to command an expedition to Guiana in search of gold. Raleigh sailed with fourteen ships in April, but the expedition was, from the first, a failure. The fleet was roughly treated by storms; many men died of disease, many more deserted on arrival in South America, and the leader was stricken down by illness. At the taking of St. Thomas, a Spanish town on the Orinoco, Raleigh's eldest son, Walter, was killed, and the unhappy father was forced to return with nothing to show the king but a bar or two of gold taken from the Spaniards.

In every way Raleigh's position was now a very dangerous one. He had undertaken when he started not to molest the dominions of the King of Spain, but

SUMMARY.

(N.B.—*The paragraphs in small type contain particulars not dealt with in the Reading Lessons*)

Britons and Romans, B.C. 55 to A.D. 450.—In 55 B.C., Julius Caesar landed in Britain with *two* legions; and, having defeated the Britons, repelled their attacks on his camp, and repaired his storm-shattered vessels, he returned to Gaul. In 54, he returned at the head of *five* legions, and, after fighting, forced Caswallon and the people of the south-east of the island to submit. The Romans did not again appear till 43 A.D., between which time and 84 A.D. their generals—notably Agricola—defeating native leaders like Caradoc, Boadicea, and Galgacus, subdued the country. Between this and 450 A.D. roads were made, villas and towns built, and the people were partly civilized under Roman rule.

In the beginning of the fifth century the Romans were compelled to withdraw their soldiers from Britain to defend parts of their empire nearer Rome, and the unwarlike people of the south were forced to ask the help of the Jutes and Saxons against the attacks of the warlike Picts and Scots of the north

Britain becomes England (450–600) — The Angles, Saxons, and Jutes were three warlike heathen tribes of fishermen and farmers, living mostly in small free communities or townships. There were two recognized classes in the community, the *eorls* or nobles, from whom the rulers were chosen, and the *ceorls* or freemen. They were no less remarkable for their love of freedom and for the free character of their institutions than for their bravery and hardihood. Between the middle of the fifth and the close of the sixth century, they drove out the Britons from the eastern and southern parts of the island, forcing them towards the western and northern, and formed a number of small kingdoms, of which the chief were:—*Kent*, 455; *Sussex*, 490; *Wessex*, 519; *Essex*, 527; *Northumbria*, 545; *East Anglia*, 575; *Mercia*, 582. They called the country they occupied *England*, and the language they spoke *English*. To them the Britons whom they had driven away to the

west were *Welsh* or foreigners. With their language and their institutions, they introduced into the country the worship of Odin, the religion of the fierce warrior tribes of North-western Europe.

England before the Norman Conquest.—I. In 597, Augustine and forty monks were allowed by Ethelbert of Kent to settle at Canterbury, and build a church. They converted Ethelbert and his people, and the Christian religion gradually spread over the rest of England. Learning and civilization went hand in hand with Christianity. Bede, a monk of Jarrow, who died in 735, wrote a Latin history of the English church; other monks taught the people agriculture, architecture, and other arts, and, round the monasteries, towns sprang up.

During more than 200 years there was a fierce struggle for the leadership among the different kingdoms, ultimately, in 828, Egbert of Wessex succeeded in subduing both Mercia and Northumbria, and made himself ruler of all the country.

II. The Danes began their incursions into England in the reign of Egbert, and, though defeated by that monarch at Hengsdown Hill (834), they continued to make their descents more frequently and with increased numbers during the reigns of his son Ethelwulf (836–857), and of his grandsons Ethelbald (857–860), and Ethelbert (860–866), and Ethelred (866–871).

Egbert's youngest grandson Alfred, who succeeded his brother in 871, after suffering various reverses, inflicted a crushing defeat on the Danes at Ethandune in Wiltshire, and forced them to agree to the Treaty of Wedmore, by which Danes were allowed to settle in the northern and eastern parts of the country, and to be ruled there by their own customs. The district was called on this account Danelagh. By prudent regulations, by good laws, by unwearied effort for the welfare of his people, Alfred did much to restore prosperity to his native land, and to render such attacks as the Danes had made upon it impossible. He thus secured to himself the well-deserved title of "the Great". The wisdom of his arrangements was shown, when the invasion of the Danes under Hastings (893–896) was repelled. Alfred died in 901, at the age of fifty-two.

III. Alfred's son Edward (901–925), and his grandsons Athelstan (925–940), Edmund (940–946), and Edred (946–955), extended their power over all England. The English and the Danes gradually became one people, and the affairs of Church and State were for

thirty years wisely and vigorously directed by the great statesman and churchman Saint Dunstan. Ethelred II. (978-1016), first by his weakness, and afterwards by a cowardly and revengeful massacre of the Danes in 1002, provoked an invasion by Sweyn of Denmark, which, notwithstanding the heroic efforts of Edmund Ironside, Ethelred's son, placed the great Danish ruler Cnut (1016-1035), and his sons Harold I. (1035-1040) and Harthacnut (1040-1042), on the throne. On the death of Harthacnut, Ethelred's son Edward, who had been living in exile in Normandy, was made king (1042-1066)

The Norman Conquest.—I. Edward II., the Confessor, favoured the Normans, and on account of them quarrelled with his powerful father-in-law Earl Godwin, and drove him and his family from the kingdom for a time. Godwin returned in 1052; was reconciled to the king; and many of the Normans were banished, or fled the kingdom. On Godwin's death (1053), Harold, his son, became Earl of Wessex, and by his ability and bravery so greatly extended his influence that, on the death of the Confessor, he was chosen king by the Witan. The only member of the royal family living at that time was the boy Edgar Atheling, grandson of Edmund Ironside.

II. At Stamford Bridge Harold met and defeated a large Danish army, under his brother Tostig, whom the Northumbrians had driven from his earldom for his tyranny, and Harold Hardrada, King of Norway. A few days afterwards news was brought to Harold at York that William, Duke of Normandy, who claimed the throne on various pretexts, had landed at Pevensey with a great army. Harold's army had been dismissed for the harvest, but he at once hastened south, and, with a small army hastily raised and his own famous *hus-carls*, threw himself in a well-chosen position between the Normans and London.

III. Harold's army was inferior in numbers and in arms to the Normans, and he had strictly ordered his men not to move from their places, and to act only on the defensive. The Normans attacked, but were again and again repulsed. By a pretended flight they succeeded in drawing a portion of the English from their position, and, turning on them, slew the greater part. This success enabled Duke William to make a more vigorous attack on the centre, where, as long as Harold lived, a stout defence was kept up. At last Harold fell, pierced in the eye by an arrow; his brave *hus-carls* died to a man around him, and the Normans remained the victors.

IV. William marched to London, was accepted by the *Witan* as king, and was crowned on Christmas Day, 1066, at Westminster. In 1068 he suppressed risings in the south-west and north. These had been caused by the misgovernment of the regents during William's absence in Normandy the previous year. In 1070 he laid waste with pitiless ferocity the country between the Humber and the Tees in revenge for a rebellion the year before. He afterwards suppressed a revolt on the Welsh border; and finally, in 1071, with the capture of Hereward's camp, in the Isle of Ely, made himself master of the entire country.

Norman England.—I. William established in complete form the feudal system in England, and much of the land of the country came into the hands of his followers. The English *Witan* was replaced by the "Great Council"; Norman-French became the language of the court and of the ruling class; Norman craftsmen and traders settled in England, and towns grew up round the castles built to keep the English in subjection. As the towns grew the citizens got, by grant or purchase, charters entitling them to a certain extent of self-government.

William refused to do homage to Pope Gregory for England; caused a complete survey of the country to be made (*Doomsday-book*), extended the royal forests to indulge his passion for hunting; punished ruthlessly all opposition to his will; but, on the whole, governed the country with firmness and justice.

II. The Conqueror's third and favourite son William Rufus succeeded (1087). He was an active and able soldier, but a wicked and cruel tyrant, plundering alike the church and the people. In 1088, he put down a rebellion in favour of his elder brother Robert, who, in 1096, gave up the Duchy of Normandy to William for £10,000. In 1095, William suppressed the rebellion of Robert Mowbray, Earl of Northumberland; he failed in a war against Wales, drove Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury, into exile by his persecution; and died unregretted, shot in the New Forest in 1100.

His brother Henry I. succeeded him, and, to maintain his position against Robert, granted in 1101 a *Charter of Liberties*; married Matilda, daughter of Queen Margaret of Scotland, and great-granddaughter of Edmund Ironside, and recalled Anselm. Henry suppressed a revolt of the barons, under Robert of Belleme, in 1102, and defeated his brother Robert at Tinchebrai in 1106, and

seized Normandy. His son William was drowned in 1120, and on Henry's death in 1135, the clergy and barons made Stephen king.

This led to a civil war between those who sided with Matilda, Henry's daughter, and Stephen. In the course of this war Matilda's uncle David and an army of Scots were defeated at Northallerton in Yorkshire, 1138—the *Battle of the Standard*; the leaders on both sides, Stephen in the battle of Lincoln, and Robert, Earl of Gloucester, Matilda's half-brother, were taken prisoners; and the country suffered terrible miseries. The Treaty of Wallingford, 1153, left the throne on Stephen's death to Henry of Anjou, Matilda's son.

III. Henry II., who succeeded in 1154, was the ablest and most powerful monarch of his time. He drove the hired soldiers out of the country, issued a new coinage; seized and destroyed the castles of the rebel barons; and restored order. He divided the country into six circuits, and appointed judges to administer the law.

Henry's chief adviser was the able churchman Thomas Becket, who became Chancellor in 1157, and Archbishop of Canterbury in 1162. As archbishop he devoted himself with his whole heart to the duties of his high office; lived so simply and poorly that he was regarded as a saint, and maintained the rights of the church against the king. To settle matters, the king summoned a Great Council, which met at Clarendon, 1164.

IV. Becket submitted at first to the law passed by this council, the *Constitutions of Clarendon*, but afterwards refused obedience and was condemned by a council held at Northampton, 1164. He fled to France, where he was well received. In England, his own property and the property of all who took his part were seized, and his friends and relatives, to the number of four hundred, were driven from the country. In 1170 Henry met Becket, and outwardly made friends with him, whereupon Becket returned to England. On his return, he suspended the Archbishop of York for performing a ceremony which it was Becket's right to perform, and excommunicated the Bishops of London and Salisbury, who crossed over to Normandy and complained to Henry. The king flew into a violent passion.

V. Four knights of the king's household, overhearing some hasty words of the king, set out for England; and after arguing with the archbishop in vain, killed him in the Cathedral. King Henry appeased the pope by swearing to his own innocence and doing penance afterwards at Canterbury.

In 1173 and 1174 Henry defeated a dangerous rebellion, in which

his own sons, Henry, Richard, and Geoffrey joined. In this war he captured William of Scotland at Alnwick, 1174. He also partly conquered Ireland, but his latter years were made wretched by the repeated rebellions of his sons. Of these Henry died in 1184; Geoffrey was accidentally killed in 1186; and Richard, whose successful rebellion in 1189 is said to have led to his father's death, succeeded him.

Richard I. (1189-1199) spent most of his time abroad fighting the Saracens in the Holy Land, or in prison in Germany, or at war with Philip of France, whom he defeated at Gisors, 1198. He plundered and harassed the people, raising money by every lawless means to meet the cost of his wars. He died from an arrow wound received at the siege of the Castle of Chaluz in 1199.

The Great Charter.—John, the youngest son of Henry II, though intensely disliked, succeeded by lavish promises in having himself proclaimed king. Some of his foreign provinces desired to have Arthur, his brother Geoffrey's son, as their lord. John is said to have murdered his nephew Arthur, whom he seized at Mirebeau; and in the war with Philip of France which followed he lost all his French dominions except Aquitaine and Guienne.

John had a bitter quarrel with the pope, who in opposition to his wishes had made Stephen Langton, the cardinal, Archbishop of Canterbury. The country was put under an interdict, and the people suffered much from the tyranny and cruelty of John. John at length submitted in 1213.

In 1214, after the defeat of John's ally and nephew, the emperor Otho, at Bouvines, the barons of England united in demanding from John a charter confirming their rights. Having granted the Great Charter, 15th June, 1215, at Runnymede, John got the pope to absolve him from his oath, and immediately made war on the barons. They in despair offered the crown to Louis, the son of the King of France. On Louis' landing in England most of the hired foreign soldiers employed by John deserted; and after about four months John's evil career was brought to a close at Newark, October 18th, 1216.

The Earl of Pembroke, regent for John's son Henry, defeated Louis at Lincoln, 1217; Hubert de Burgh, the justiciar, won a great naval victory off Dover; the barons were appeased by the young king confirming the Great Charter, and Louis returned to France in September, 1217.

Rise of the House of Commons.—I. The Earl of Pembroke died in 1219. Henry was declared of age in 1223; and after

Hubert de Burgh was removed from the head of affairs in 1232, Henry, by his lavish gifts to foreigners, by his heavy exactions, and in other ways, brought upon himself repeated complaints from the "Great Council". The right of appointing clergymen claimed by the pope at this time, and exercised in favour of Italians, caused great discontent. The enormous sums also, drawn from the country by papal authority, left the people poor and led to frequent protests.

Henry's efforts to recover the French territory lost by his father, were unsuccessful. In 1242 he was defeated at Taillebourg and nearly captured at Saintes, where his brother-in-law, Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, did good service.

II. This Simon de Montfort, the third son of a celebrated soldier, was born about 1208, and came to England in 1229. He won Henry's favour; and in 1238 married the king's sister, Eleanor. Having quarrelled with the king about a debt he took the Cross; gained some fame as a crusader; returned, and was reconciled to the king in 1242.

De Montfort's most intimate friends were Bishop Grosseteste, to whom he intrusted the education of his sons, and the friar Adam Marsh, noble, earnest-minded men and zealous reformers. In 1248 De Montfort was made governor of Gascony, where he restored order. He was accused before the "Council" of tyranny, but was acquitted; quarrelled with the king (1252), and returned to his government.

III. In 1258 De Montfort was one of the twelve commissioners appointed by the barons to act with twelve of the king's council in drawing up a scheme of reform. This scheme, the Provisions of Oxford, which included the appointment of a permanent Council of fifteen, of which body Earl Simon was a member, was agreed to by the king. The barons having quarrelled among themselves, and Henry being absolved by the pope from his oath to observe the Provisions, Simon retired to France in 1261. In 1263, on the death of the Earl of Gloucester, he returned to England as the leader of the baronial and reforming party. The dispute between king and barons was submitted to the King of France, whose decision, the Mise of Amiens, was in favour of Henry. But the barons took up arms. After some slight reverses, De Montfort completely defeated the royal forces at Lewes in Sussex, and took King Henry and his son Edward prisoners.

IV. By writs issued in the king's name, in December, 1264, Simon summoned a parliament to meet in London in January, 1265.

Not only churchmen, lay barons, and two knights from every shire, but also two citizens from certain boroughs in England were called to this parliament. Quarrels between Simon and Gilbert Earl of Gloucester, marked the session, and in May, 1265, Prince Edward escaped; joined Gloucester, and at once made war on Simon.

V. At Evesham, where De Montfort expected to be met by his son Simon with reinforcements, he was met instead by Prince Edward with an overwhelming force, and he died fighting bravely, August 4th, 1265. "Sir Simon the Righteous" was worshipped as a saint, and much that he had fought for was secured by the Ban of Kenilworth, 1267, to which the king and prince assented.

Prince Edward went on a crusade to the Holy Land; and though the king died in 1272, it was not till August, 1274, that Edward returned to England to be crowned.

Edward the First (1272-1307).—I. Edward I. was a tall and powerful man, with broad chest and long arms, a brave and skilful warrior, excelling in all the knightly accomplishments of the time. He completed the work of law reform begun by Henry II., reorganized the law-courts, forming out of the King's Court the three separate courts of Common Pleas, King's Bench, and Exchequer. He was an able statesman, a just though, especially in his later years, harsh ruler, and a wise lawgiver. His efforts were directed to freeing the state from the burden of feudal rules and customs, and to establishing a system of public order and national defence. To him belongs the credit of founding our parliamentary system, and so completing the great work begun by his godfather Simon de Montfort.

II. Edward's wars with Wales, France, and Scotland forced him frequently to resort to harsh methods of raising money. Provoked by these, and taking advantage of his necessities, the barons, led by Roger Bigod, Earl of Norfolk, and Humphrey Bohun, Earl of Hereford, extorted from him the Confirmation of the Charters, 1297. In this document, besides confirming the charters with the additions that had been made to them, the king acknowledged that taxes raised without consent of parliament were illegal and not to be taken as examples that might be followed.

In the reigns of Edward II. and Edward III. the powers of parliament were greatly extended, and it acquired the right not only of controlling taxation and making the laws, but of punishing by impeachment the evil counsellors of the king.

III. During the struggle between the king and the barons, beginning in the reign of John, the princes of North Wales had considerably extended their dominion. Llewellyn, who was in alliance with Simon de Montfort, had seized some territory which had been given by Henry III. to his son Edward. He refused to restore the territory and repair the castles, so Edward invaded Wales in 1277, and forced him to submit. In 1282 he and his brother David rebelled, but after struggling bravely and inflicting some severe reverses on Edward's army, Llewellyn was surprised and killed in Radnorshire, in December, 1282. David, betrayed to the English in 1283, was tried and executed as a traitor. Wales was then united to England, and strong castles were built in various parts of the country to prevent the Welsh from revolting.

IV. After the death of Alexander III. of Scotland in 1286, and of his heiress and granddaughter Margaret, in 1290, the Scottish parliament begged the English king to decide which of the thirteen rival claimants had a right to the throne. Edward took this opportunity of compelling the Scottish barons to acknowledge him as their superior lord; and in 1292 gave his decision in favour of John Baliol. Baliol, annoyed by Edward's frequent interference between himself and his subjects, having concluded an alliance with France, revolted. In 1296, Edward having sacked Berwick, defeated a Scottish army at Dunbar, and captured most of the fortresses of the country, received at Montrose Baliol's submission and the surrender of the kingdom. Scarcely had Edward left the country after receiving the fealty of the Scottish nobles and clergy, when the people under the leadership of William Wallace revolted. In 1297 this famous hero and patriot completely defeated the Earl of Surrey at the battle of Stirling, drove the English out of the country, and laid waste the northern counties of England.

The End of Edward the First.—Edward the Second.—King Edward invaded Scotland with an overwhelming force; but it is said that the policy pursued by Wallace would have compelled him to retreat had not the position of the Scottish army been betrayed. He attacked and completely defeated the Scottish leader at Falkirk, in 1298. The war with Scotland was continued till 1304. Wallace was seized and executed for treason in 1305, and in 1306 Robert Bruce was crowned king of Scotland at Scone. Defeated at Methven in 1306 by Pembroke, Bruce, after being hunted as a fugitive for some months, defeated that leader at Loudon Hill, 1307. Edward I. having died the same year, Bruce

by degrees retook the whole of Scotland from Edward II., on whom he inflicted a crushing defeat at Bannockburn, 1314. Berwick was captured by the Scots, 1318; King Edward was deposed and murdered, 1327; and the independence of Scotland was acknowledged by the Treaty of Northampton, 1328.

Edward II. was, like his father, strong in body, but in character he was weak, self-indulgent, and cowardly. His fondness for such favourites as Walter Reynolds, afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury, and Piers Gaveston, led in 1310 to the appointment of Ordainers, who exercised the "royal power", and in 1312 to the seizure of Gaveston and his execution on Blacklow Hill. In 1321 Edward's fondness for the Despensers again led to a war with the barons. The Despensers were banished, but quarrels having arisen among the barons, Edward was able to defeat their leader, his own cousin, the Earl of Lancaster. He caused him to be executed at Pontefract, and punished some of the other leaders, 1322. The misgovernment of the Despensers, and the wretched state to which the country was reduced, led to the formation of a new party, headed by the Queen and Mortimer. With the aid of the citizens of London and foreign hired soldiers, they seized and executed the Despensers; caused the king to resign his crown, and proclaimed his son, Edward III., king, 1327. The deposed king seems to have been treated with every possible indignity by his captors, and secretly murdered at Berkeley Castle.

For nearly four years after the deposition of Edward II. all real power was in the hands of the queen and Mortimer, but in June, 1330, the young king, Edward III., determined to free himself from their control. Mortimer was seized and executed without trial, and the queen confined for the rest of her life at Castle Rising.

Notwithstanding the treaty of Northampton, Edward supported the claim of Edward Balliol to the throne of Scotland, defeated the Scots at Halidon Hill, 1333, captured Berwick, and placed Edward Balliol as his vassal on the throne. Balliol had to leave Scotland in 1339, and in the same year war with France began.

The Rise of the People.—After the Norman Conquest, the labourers were mostly slaves, whose bodies and goods were considered the property of their masters. By escaping to other parts of the country, by taking advantage of the law which made them freemen if they lived for a year and a day in a town, by purchase, or by the free grant of their masters, many labourers acquired freedom, and the place of the villeins was gradually taken by free labourers. The scarcity of workers occasioned by The Black Death in 1348 led to the Statutes of Labourers, 1349–51, which attempted to hinder workmen from asking what wages they thought right for their work. These and the heavy taxation caused the Revolt of the Peasants in 1381. Under Wat Tyler and other leaders, they seized London; put to death the Archbishop of Canterbury; and compelled the king to promise them redress. After the murder of Tyler by Walworth, the Lord-mayor of London, Parliament refused to fulfil the king's promises, an army was raised, and thousands of the peasants, who, on the faith of these promises, had dispersed, were put to death.

John Wyclif, a Yorkshire man, born about 1320 in the Tees Valley, master of Balliol College in 1361, and famed for his learning, opposed the claim of the Pope to an annual tribute from England. By his writings, and especially by his translation of the Bible into English, he became the **Father of English Prose**. From the influence of his teaching on the course of religious thought, he has been called the **Morning Star of the Reformation**. After the "Peasants' Revolt", Wyclif, who was also a great social reformer, and favoured the cause of the poor, was forced to withdraw to his rectory of Lutterworth, where he died, 1384. His followers, the Lollards, suffered much persecution.

Geoffrey Chaucer.—I. Geoffrey Chaucer was born probably about 1340 in **Thames Street, London**. After having received a good education he became, in 1357, through the influence of John of Gaunt, a page to Elizabeth, wife of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, the king's third son. He served in the French wars of Edward III. in 1359, was taken a prisoner, and ransomed, the king contributing to his ransom. He was one of the yeomen of the king's bed-chamber in 1367, and was afterwards employed on political missions in Italy and elsewhere. In 1374 he was appointed Comptroller of the London Customs, and he seems to have risen to wealth and influence, for we find him in 1386 one of the Members for Kent.

Chaucer was well read in French and Italian, and many of his works are translations from these languages; but such is his genius that the translation is often more charming than the original. His reputation as a poet was great, but from 1386 onwards he seems to have suffered much from money troubles. He died in 1400.

II. Though his entire work is so excellent, it is to the **Canterbury Tales** that Chaucer chiefly owes his fame. A party of pilgrims, numbering, with the landlord, who goes with them, thirty-one, set out from the Tabard Inn, Southwark, to the shrine of St. Thomas of Canterbury. The pilgrims are thoroughly representative of the different classes of the people; and in the Prologue, Chaucer has given us a picture of the members, so lively, so full of shrewd observation, and yet of such genial humour, that nothing in the language quite matches it. The plan of the work was for each member to relate a couple of stories going and returning, to lessen the tedium of the journey. It allowed the author great freedom in his mode of treatment; and while only twenty-four of the proposed stories are told, we have in these and the connecting portions a vivid and interesting picture of the life of the time.

The Hundred Years' War (1339-1453).—I. This war was caused by the attempts of Philip of France to get possession of Edward III.'s lands in France, and by the help which he gave to the Scots. In the course of the war Edward took the title of King of France in order to gain the help of the Flemings. Edward was ambitious, warlike, fond of show, and hard-hearted, though not wantonly cruel. During his reign the Commons considerably extended their power, and the Statute of Treasons, 1352, defined that crime.

II. In 1340 Edward destroyed the naval power of France at the battle of Sluys, where, of 190 ships of the enemy, only 24 escaped. In 1346, having landed at La Hogue, captured a number of towns, and ravaged the French coasts, he was, on his march northwards, met by Philip at Crecy. There he inflicted on the French king a crushing defeat. The French are said to have lost in killed, wounded, and prisoners, a greater number than the whole English army. Edward then laid siege to Calais, which surrendered in 1347, and was converted into an English colony and fortress and a market for English trade. In the same year as the battle of Crecy, Edward's queen, Philippa, defeated David II. of Scotland at Neville's Cross, and took him prisoner.

III. In 1356 Edward's eldest son, the Black Prince, who at the head of 12,000 men had made a raid from Aquitaine on the dominions of the French king, defeated at Poitiers an army of 60,000, and captured the king and over 2000 prisoners. The Treaty of Bretigny stopped the war for a short time; but John, the King of France, being unable to raise the ransom demanded, returned to London, where he died; and the war was renewed by his successor, Charles, in 1369. On the withdrawal of the Black Prince to England on account of his failing health (1371) the French, under the famous Bertrand du Guesclin, succeeded in driving the English out of all France, except Bordeaux, Bayonne, and Calais.

The Black Prince having died in 1376, his son, Richard II. (1377-99), succeeded on the death of his grandfather, Edward III., 1377. He was only 11 years of age, and his uncles, Lancaster and Gloucester especially, were bold, ambitious, and turbulent men. During his reign the wars with France and Scotland were languidly conducted. In 1388 the king took the management of affairs into his own hands; but having attempted to establish a tyranny, he was deposed by Parliament in 1399, and Henry IV. (1399-1413) became king. An invasion of Scotland, 1400; the defeat of Percy and

Glendower at Shrewsbury, 1403; and the persecution of the Lollards are the most noteworthy events connected with a reign spent in defeating constant plots both at home and abroad.

IV. Henry V. (1413-22) having prevented a threatened rising of the Lollards in 1414, invaded France in 1415 in support of his claim to the French throne. Having besieged and captured Harfleur, at the mouth of the Seine, Henry sent away his fleet with the sick and wounded, and marched with the remainder of his army towards Calais. At Agincourt he met and totally defeated a French force many times larger than his own small army, October 25th, 1415; and his return to England, November 17th, was celebrated with great public rejoicings.

V. In 1417 Henry again invaded France; made himself master of the chief towns of Normandy, including Rouen (1419); and, by the Treaty of Troyes (1420) was appointed regent of France and acknowledged heir to Charles VI., the French king. The French, with the aid of a body of Scots under the Earl of Buchan, defeated and slew the Duke of Clarence, the king's brother, at Bauge, 1421. Henry, on his return from England, drove the Dauphin across the Loire, and besieged and captured Meaux; but he died at Vincennes, 1422, and his brother John, Duke of Bedford, became regent of the French Dominions for Henry's son, who was only nine months old.

VI. By prudent alliances and by the victories of Crevant (1423) and Verneuil (1424), Bedford strengthened the English power, and in 1428, by his orders, the Earl of Salisbury laid siege to Orleans. The English won the battle of Herrings, 1429; but the death of Salisbury from a wound received during the siege was a great loss to them. The appearance also of Joan of Arc, a young girl who believed herself directed by Heaven to crown Charles at Rheims, raised the spirits of the besieged. The English were struck with terror, and suffered themselves to be driven from before Orleans, and out of the rest of the country between that city and Rheims, where Charles was crowned in July, 1429. The heroic "Maid of Orleans", captured by Burgundian troops when heading a sally from the besieged town of Compiègne, was condemned as a witch, and burned in the market-place of Rouen, May 30th, 1431.

After the death of the Duke of Bedford, 1435, the French gradually recovered the lost territory, and with the defeat of the Earl of Shrewsbury at Chatillon and the surrender of Bordeaux to

the French, the Hundred Years' War closed in 1453, leaving only Calais in the hands of the English.

The Fight for the Crown.—I. Henry VI., a weak prince, but a lover and patron of learning, the founder of Eton and of King's College, Cambridge, 1441, married Margaret of Anjou in 1445. The death of the two great rivals, Humphrey of Gloucester and Cardinal Beaufort, in 1447, left the control of affairs in the hands of Suffolk. The clamour against the favourite on account of mismanagement led to his banishment (1449); and on his way to the Continent he was murdered.

In 1450 the misgovernment of the country brought about a rebellion of the men of Kent, with Jack Cade, an Irishman who styled himself Mortimer, as leader. They defeated the royal forces at Sevenoaks; entered London; put Lord Say to death; but, beginning to plunder, were driven out by the citizens; and, dispersing on a promise of pardon, were afterwards punished with great severity.

II. Henry's only son, Edward, was born in October, 1453, while the King was insane. The Duke of York was made regent, and placed Somerset, regarded by the people as the cause of all the French disasters, in custody. In 1455 Henry recovered; Somerset was released; and York, fearing the vengeance of Somerset, raised an army with the aid of the Earl of Warwick; defeated and captured the king, and slew Somerset at the first battle of St. Albans, 1455.

The king having again become insane, York was again made regent, but resigned on the king's recovery in 1456. After a hollow truce of two years, war broke out in 1459, and Salisbury having defeated Lord Audley at Bloreheath, was joined at Ludlow by York and Warwick. By offers of pardon the king broke up the Yorkist army, and its leaders fled, but were condemned as traitors in a parliament held afterwards.

In 1460 Salisbury and Warwick returned to England; defeated and captured the King at Northampton, and in the parliament which met in October, York claimed the crown. His claim was allowed; but Queen Margaret raised an army for the king, and the Duke of York was defeated and slain at Wakefield, December, 1460. In 1461 Edward, the new Duke of York, won the battle of Mortimer's Cross; and though Margaret defeated Warwick in the second battle of St. Albans, Edward marched to London and was acknowledged king, Henry being deposed. Edward IV. (1461-83) won the decisive battle of Towton on Palm Sunday, 29th March, 1461, and Margaret and Henry took refuge in Scotland. In 1464 the

Lancastrians were defeated at Hedgeley Moor and Hexham; and shortly afterwards Edward married Elizabeth Woodville, Lady Grey. *

Edward's alliance with the Duke of Burgundy, the marriage of his sister Margaret to that prince, and the favours showered on the queen's relatives gave great offence to the Earl of Warwick, who began secretly to plot against the king. The success of "Robin of Redesdale's" insurrection, 1469, made Warwick for a time supreme, but the failure of the insurrection of Sir Robert Welles, 1470, forced Warwick to flee to France, where he was joined by his son-in-law, the Duke of Clarence, the king's brother. By the help of Louis XI an alliance was effected between Warwick and Queen Margaret, and her son, Prince Edward, married Warwick's second daughter, Anne.

III. On Warwick and Clarence invading England, the Marquis of Montague, Warwick's brother, deserted the king, and Edward fled to the Continent to his sister, the Duchess of Burgundy, 1470. Returning to England in 1471, he defeated and slew Warwick—deserted by Clarence—at the battle of Barnet; and in less than three weeks Margaret herself was defeated and her son Edward slain at the battle of Tewkesbury. A few weeks later Henry VI. died or was murdered in the Tower, where Margaret was kept a prisoner for four years. In 1478 Edward's brother, Clarence, was executed for treason.

The destruction of the old nobility had greatly increased the royal power; and Edward, though greatly enriched by gaining possession of the property of the rebel lords, often resorted to harsh methods of raising money to meet the expenditure required to satisfy his pleasure-loving and self-indulgent disposition. He took, however, an interest in learning, and in 1476 the printing-press was introduced into England by William Caxton.

IV. Richard III (1483-85).—On the death of Edward (April, 1483), his brother Richard was appointed protector. Having placed Edward's two young sons in the Tower, and removed from his path by execution their staunchest supporters, he caused himself to be proclaimed king in June, 1483. The murder of the princes in the Tower excited strong feeling against Richard. In the main he ruled wisely, and succeeded in putting down a rebellion under Buckingham, who was executed 1483. But his defeat and death at the battle of Bosworth, 1485, against Henry of Richmond, the representative of the Lancastrians, were hailed with general delight. *

The Tudor Sovereigns.—Henry VII. (1485-1509).—Though Henry married Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of Edward IV., and thus united the claims of the rival houses, the Yorkists

were dissatisfied. Lord Lovel and the Staffords rebelled, 1486; and the same year a pretender to the throne, Lambert Simnel, appeared in Ireland, where he was welcomed. Aided by 2000 troops supplied by the Duchess of Burgundy, Simnel sailed for England; but he was met and defeated by Henry at Stoke, 1487.

Henry interfered in the affairs of Bretagne, and there were preparations for a war with France, for which Henry raised money from his subjects; but peace was concluded at Etaples, the French king agreeing to pay Henry a large sum of money and a yearly pension.

In 1493 the plots in favour of Perkin Warbeck, a pretender who had appeared in 1492, were revealed to the king by Sir Robert Clifford, and the ringleaders were seized. After a fruitless attempt on Kent (1495), and an equally fruitless raid on the north of England from Scotland (1496), Warbeck invaded Devonshire (1497), and was seized and imprisoned in the Tower. Attempting to escape in company with the Earl of Warwick, they were taken prisoners, and Warbeck was hanged at Tyburn and Warwick beheaded on Tower Hill.

The discovery of America, 1492, the general use of gunpowder in war, the revival of learning, the extension of the royal authority, and the establishment of such courts as the "Court of Star Chamber" in England marked the period of Henry VII. His son Arthur dying in 1502, Henry, his second son, was betrothed to Catherine, Arthur's widow. His eldest daughter, Margaret, was married in 1501 to James IV. of Scotland.

Henry VIII. (1509 to 1547), married Catherine, and prosecuted Empson and Dudley, the chief instruments of his father's tyranny, who were executed 1510. He joined the Holy League against France; invaded France, 1513, and gained the battle of Spurs. In the same year Surrey, his commander in England, inflicted a crushing defeat on James IV. of Scotland at Flodden field. There the Scottish monarch, Henry's brother-in-law, was killed.

I. Thomas Wolsey, the son of a grazier of Ipswich, where he was born 1471, was an excellent scholar and able politician, who for his zeal and services had been made Dean of Lincoln by Henry VII. He became Henry's chief counsellor, was made Bishop of Lincoln and Archbishop of York in 1514, became Lord Chancellor and Cardinal 1515, and shortly afterwards Papal Legate. His wealth was enormous, and the splendour of his mode of living rivalled that

of the king himself. He was a great patron of learning, and founded the Grammar School at Ipswich and the college of Christ Church, Oxford.

II. He was hated by the nobles for his pride, and by the people for his unlawful exactions. Wolsey and Henry attempted to govern without Parliament, and to raise the needful money by "forced loans" or benevolences, but the open signs of armed rebellion against these exactions in 1525 made both give way.

Meetings with the Emperor Charles V. in England, with Francis I. of France at the "Field of the Cloth of Gold", and afterwards with Charles at Calais, had no lasting results.

III. Henry's professed doubts as to the legality of his marriage with Catherine, his brother Arthur's widow, induced the pope to appoint Cardinals Campeggio and Wolsey to try the case. Henry blamed Wolsey for the delays that took place, and when Campeggio, by the pope's instructions, broke up the court and summoned Henry and Catherine to Rome, the king vented his rage on Wolsey. Sir Thomas More was made chancellor; Wolsey's property was seized, and he was banished from court. In obedience to the king's orders, he proceeded from Esher to his archbishopric, and was there seized on a charge of treason; but he died at Leicester Abbey on his way to the Tower.

IV. By threats Henry forced the clergy to acknowledge him as the "supreme head of the church", 1531. Since the pope would not agree to divorce Henry from Catherine, the king decided to abolish the pope's authority in England. Cranmer was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and declared the marriage with Catherine "null and void". Henry married Anne Boleyn, a lady of the court, and had her crowned queen in June, 1533. In 1532 an act was passed forbidding the payment of Annates, or first-fruits of benefices, to the pope. Next session appeals to Rome were forbidden, and in 1534 Henry was declared by Act of Parliament *supreme head of the Church of England*.

V. Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, and Sir Thomas More, the late chancellor, refused to acknowledge Henry to be the "supreme head of the church". Sir Thomas More, the son of a judge, Sir John More, was born in 1478 in Milk Street, Cheapside; became in 1493 a page in the household of Cardinal Morton, who predicted that he would turn out "a marvellous man", and from thence he went to Oxford, where he became noted as a scholar. Erasmus,

the great Dutch scholar, became his friend. In private life as son, husband, father, and friend, More showed the beauty, grace, and perfection of a personal character which made him the most winning and most lovable of men.

VI. His public life was equally pure and good. In 1504 he offended Henry VII. by the boldness with which he opposed the king's demands for money. He became a great favourite of Henry VIII., and rose rapidly. In 1523, as **Speaker**, he maintained the rights of the House of Commons against Wolsey. In 1529 he became chancellor, much against his own wishes. He resigned the chancellorship in 1532; then, refusing to acknowledge Henry to be "head of the English Church", he was, after a long confinement, tried in Westminster for high treason and executed July 6th, 1535, declaring to the bystanders that he "died in and for the faith of the Catholic Church".

VII. In 1536, by the advice of Thomas Cromwell, the smaller monasteries were suppressed. In the same year Queen Catherine died, Queen Anne was beheaded, the king married his third wife, Jane Seymour, and a rebellion provoked by excessive taxation and religious changes, the "Pilgrimage of Grace", broke out in the northern and eastern counties. The rebellion was crushed early in the following spring, the promises made to the rebels in the autumn being broken; and between 1537 and 1539 the larger monasteries were suppressed.

Jane Seymour died after giving birth to Prince Edward. Henry's dislike to his fourth wife, Anne of Cleves, with whom for political reasons Cromwell had promoted a marriage, brought about Cromwell's downfall and execution, 1540, and the king's divorce. In 1540 Henry married Catherine Howard, who was beheaded for treason, 1542; and in 1543 he married Katharine Parr, who survived him.

With part of the wealth secured by suppressing the monasteries, the king founded several bishoprics. He persecuted Protestants and Catholics alike; put to death without mercy all who had offended him or whom he feared; made war on his nephew James V of Scotland, who was defeated at Solway Moss, and died broken-hearted, 1542, and on France, 1543. He attempted to arrange a marriage between his son Edward and the infant Queen of Scots, but died January, 1547. He was succeeded by his son Edward.

Edward VI. (1547-1553).—Somerset, the young king's uncle, who was made Protector, defeated the Scots at Pinkie, 1547. They appealed to France for aid, and sent their infant queen Mary there for safety. The "Six Articles" and other harsh laws passed in the reign of Henry VIII. were repealed, and under the guidance

of Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer the "Reformation" in England was carried out. Risings in the east and in the west of England to protest against the enclosure of Commons and the changes in religion were taken advantage of by the Earl of Warwick, who got the council to depose Somerset and make him protector. As Duke of Northumberland he induced the young king to leave the throne by his will to Lady Jane Grey.

Mary (1553-1558). — The nation chose Mary, the daughter of Queen Catherine, for ruler; Northumberland was put to death; and Wyatt's insurrection, which was intended as a protest against Mary's marriage with her cousin Philip of Spain, was made an excuse for putting to death also Lady Jane Grey and her husband, Lord Guilford Dudley, Northumberland's son. Mary married Philip of Spain; revived the laws against heresy; and persecuted the Protestants, of whom nearly 300 were burned between 1555 and 1558. In a war with France in the interests of Spain Calais was lost, 1558. In the same year Mary died, and was succeeded by her half-sister Elizabeth, the daughter of Anne Boleyn.

Elizabeth (1558-1603).—I. Aided by such wise counsellors as Burleigh, his son Robert Cecil, and Walsingham, Elizabeth's government was most successful. The country grew rapidly in wealth and power. The queen, sparing of her own and her people's money, avoided foreign wars. Under her rule the Church of England became what it is now, and an Act of Uniformity forced all clergymen to use only the church-service. Catholics and the extreme Protestants or Puritans suffered persecution, especially during the latter part of the reign.

II. The country benefited greatly from the reform of the coinage. The navy of England may be said to have been founded by Henry VIII., to whom the establishment of the Admiralty and Trinity House is also due; but it was in the time of Elizabeth that England first became a great maritime and commercial country. The struggle between Philip and the revolted Netherlands drove traders, manufacturers, and workmen to England for safety, and London became the greatest European market. The Royal Exchange was built by Sir Thomas Gresham, 1556, and named by Elizabeth, 1570. The Turkey Company, Russia Company, and East India Company were formed in this reign, trade with Asia was opened up; and Davis Strait and Frobisher Bay still bear witness to the enterprise of the seamen of her day.

III. Elizabeth soon became recognized as the leader of the Protestants of Europe, as Philip of Spain was of the Catholics. She sent help to the Protestants of Scotland, France, and the Netherlands. She suppressed a rebellion of the Catholics of the north of England, 1570, and in the same year the pope issued a Bull deposing her. The parliament of 1571 replied by enacting severe laws against Roman Catholics. Several plots to assassinate the queen and her advisers, and the horrible massacre of St Bartholomew, 1572, excited popular indignation against the Catholics.

The Duke of Norfolk, the head of the Catholic party, and the Earl of Northumberland, one of the leaders of the great northern rebellion, 1570, were executed in 1572.

IV. The Statute of Uniformity, 1559, drove many learned and pious Catholic Englishmen abroad, and from the college which they founded at "Douay" "missioners" were sent to England. In 1577 Cuthbert Mayne, one of these "missioners", was executed at Launceston, and his host Francis Tregear, a Cornish gentleman, was imprisoned for twenty-eight years, and then exiled. Over a hundred priests and a considerable though smaller number of Catholic laymen suffered "martyrdom" in the latter half of the reign of Elizabeth. Of these the most distinguished was Edmond Campion, a priest noted for his learning, who died 1581. Throckmorton, a gentleman of Cheshire, was executed for conspiracy in 1583. In 1584 a law ordering Jesuits and Catholic priests to leave the kingdom within forty days was passed. In 1586 the Babington conspiracy to murder the queen was discovered, and the conspirators tried and executed.

V. The Puritans or extreme Protestant party also suffered great persecution during the reign of Elizabeth. The enforcement of the Act of Uniformity drove many of the most conscientious of the "clergymen" from their livings, and when the "Nonconformists" met for worship they were put in prison. Grindal, Archbishop of Canterbury, who favoured the Puritans, was suspended in 1577; and on his death in 1583 Whitgift, a bigoted persecutor, was made primate. When, driven from their livings by the Court of High Commission, the Puritans wrote books explaining their ideas, their books were seized, and they themselves and the printers punished. These persecutions drove some of the Nonconformists to settle in Holland.

VI. The total population of England in the time of Elizabeth was less than five millions. London, then a walled city, separated from

the City of Westminster by the Strand and the village of Charing, had a population of less than 200,000. York was the second city in the kingdom, and great manufacturing centres like Manchester and Birmingham were then mere villages. No lighthouses warned the sailor approaching our shores of hidden dangers, and no buoys marked his way into harbour. The rich rode, and the poor trudged afoot; while pack-horses carried the goods of pedlars and merchants from fair to fair, where most of the business of the time was done. Little more than a fourth of the land was cultivated. Only the rich ate wheaten bread, and many of our common fruits and vegetables had but recently been introduced. Newcastle sent coals to London, tin and copper were produced in Cornwall; and Sussex, Kent, and Surrey were the iron-producing counties.

VII. The people were ignorant and superstitious. Their manners were coarse; and the dependent and weak—wives and children—were treated with great harshness, often cruelly beaten. Their sports—bear-baiting, &c.—were low and brutal; and gluttony and drunkenness were the prevailing vices. The queen delighted in stage plays, and the people were fond of all kinds of out-door exercises. Great splendour was the feature of the style of dress of the time; and the houses were much more comfortable than they had formerly been. The great authors of the period were Shakespeare, Marlowe, Spenser, Jonson, Hooker, Bacon, &c., the greatest names in our literature.

VIII. Sir Francis Drake.—Drake was born probably sometime between 1540 and 1545 near Tavistock. As an apprentice he gained the approval of his master, who, dying, left his small vessel to Drake. After a voyage to the Guinea coast in 1565, Drake, in 1567, in command of the *Judith*, went with his kinsman, John Hawkins, on an expedition to America. Plundered and ill-treated by the Spaniards, both men vowed revenge; and Drake, after a couple of voyages in 1570 and 1571, set out in 1572 at the head of seventy-three men to punish the Spaniards. With this small force he captured *Nombre de Dios*; but just missed, on account of a wound, securing the wealth it contained. He burned Porto Bello, captured and destroyed many Spanish ships; crossed the Isthmus of Panama; and after plundering a mule train laden with gold and silver returned to England in 1573. ?

IX. Drake was a short, strong-limbed, broad-chested, round-headed, brown-haired man, with large clear eyes and a most

determined expression In December, 1577, he again sailed from Plymouth. Having broken up the two smallest of the vessels forming the expedition, he sailed through the Strait of Magellan, to be met by a storm, which drove his own vessel the *Golden Hind* (*Pelican*) far to the south, and forced Wynter in the *Elizabeth* to return home, while the *Marigold* was never more heard of. Drake captured off the coast of S. America one richly-laden ship, the *Cacafuego* (*Sputfire*), and several others; and having refitted, returned to England by the Cape of Good Hope, being thus the first English captain to circumnavigate the globe. Knighted by the queen in 1581, he plundered the Spanish American colonies in 1585, and brought back in 1586 the survivors of the Virginian colonists. In 1587 he burnt the shipping in the harbours on the coast of Spain and Portugal, and he took a leading part in 1588 in the defeat of the Armada. He accompanied Hawkins in his unfortunate expedition, 1595; and died 1596.

X. Mary, Queen of Scots.—In 1567 Mary, Queen of Scots, was beheaded in Fotheringay Castle by order of Queen Elizabeth, and died with great fortitude. Her grandmother Margaret, the eldest daughter of Henry VII., was married to James IV. of Scotland; but that did not prevent war between James and his brother-in-law Henry VIII., and James was defeated and killed at Flodden, 1513. Mary's father, James V., was defeated by his uncle's forces at Solway Moss, 1542, and he died broken-hearted. Henry then tried to force the Scots to marry their young queen Mary, his grand-niece, to his son Edward; but the Scots, defeated by Somerset the Protector at Pinkie, 1547, sent her to France for safety.

XI. In 1558 Mary married the Dauphin Francis. In 1559 Mary's husband became King of France, and Mary and he claimed also the throne of England. In 1561 she returned to Scotland, her husband being dead; and in 1565 she married Lord Darnley, who mortally offended her by his share in the murder of her servant Rizzio. Darnley was murdered in 1567; Mary married Bothwell; was seized at Carberry Hill; imprisoned in Lochleven Castle; abdicated in favour of her son; escaped; was defeated at Langside; and took refuge in England, 1568.

A conspiracy to marry Mary to the Duke of Norfolk was discovered 1569, and the duke imprisoned. He was set free 1570. on promising solemnly not to attempt to marry the Queen of Scots. The great rebellion of the north, the renewal of the conspiracy of Norfolk and plots against Elizabeth's life led to Norfolk's execution

1572; while Mary was condemned and executed, nominally for her share in Babington's conspiracy, really because her existence was a constant source of danger to Elizabeth.

XII. The Armada.—In 1584 Philip of Spain began to prepare a fleet and army for the conquest of England. His aims were to punish the English for helping the revolted Netherlanders, and for the injuries done to Spain by Drake and others, and to destroy Protestantism by conquering the chief Protestant power. He had in the Netherlands the finest army in the world, commanded by one of the ablest generals, Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma, waiting to be transported to England, and, though Drake's "singeing the King of Spain's beard" in 1587 delayed the sailing of the "Armada" for a year, when it did sail it seemed quite equal to the task of driving the English fleet from the Channel. When put to the test, however, the skill, courage, and superior gunnery of the English won a victory, which but for the niggardliness of the queen would have been more complete.

XIII. On July 19th news of the Armada's approach was brought to Plymouth, and the whole of England was speedily in arms and ready for the struggle. On July 20th the Armada was off the Lizard, and the English fleet, permitting it to pass up the Channel, issued from Plymouth and attacked its rear.

XIV. In the week's fighting which followed the English destroyed or captured several of the large Spanish ships; but the Armada made its way to Calais Roads. There, on the 28th July, it was assailed by fire-ships, and, in the confusion that followed, some of the ships were driven ashore, and others captured by the English. The Spanish admiral fled; but he lost many of his remaining ships by storms encountered on his way back to Spain. In this expedition the Spaniards lost eighty-one vessels and about 14,000 soldiers, besides the sailors. There were great rejoicings in England, and next year Drake burned the shipping at Corunna and plundered the country; while in 1596 an expedition, under Lord Howard and the Earl of Essex, captured and plundered Cadiz, and destroyed the ships in the harbour.

The Conquest of Ireland.—I. With the permission of Henry II, the Earl of Pembroke, Richard de Clare, and Robert Fitz-Stephen, and Maurice Fitz-Gerald, aided in restoring Dermot, King of Leinster, to his throne. On his death the Earl of Pembroke, who had married Dermot's daughter Eva, became King

of Leinster. Henry II visited Ireland in 1172, and received the homage of the chiefs. In 1177 **Hugh de Lacy** became lord-deputy, and greatly extended the English power, but the misgovernment of Prince John excited the hatred of the natives, and John was recalled. In 1210 John, with the help of native allies, forced the Anglo-Norman lords to submit and swear fealty. **Edward Bruce** attempted, 1316, to make himself king of Ireland; but though he gained many victories he was finally defeated and killed at Dundalk.

II. During the Hundred Years' War, and the struggle between the Houses of York and Lancaster, the English hold on Ireland grew weaker, and native chiefs often levied blackmail on those dwelling in The Pale, as the English district was called. A parliament, held at Drogheda in the reign of Henry VII. by Sir Edward Poynings, gave the control of Irish legislation to the English Council. Henry VIII. assumed the title of "King of Ireland", and in 1535 the House of Kildare, the Fitz-Geralds, who had besieged Dublin in 1534, and were a standing menace to The Pale, was overthrown. All attempts to make the Irish Protestants failed. In 1567 Sidney suppressed the rebellion of Shan O'Neil, who claimed to be Earl of Tyrone. An invading force of Spaniards and Italians, who landed at Smerwick in Kerry, was captured by Lord Grey, the deputy, and the prisoners put to death, 1580. In 1583 the death of Fitz-Gerald, Earl of Desmond, in the mountains of Kerry brought the rebellion in Munster to an end. In 1594 a great rebellion broke out under Hugh O'Neil, Earl of Tyrone, who maintained his position till 1602, when Lord Mountjoy forced him to submit to the queen.

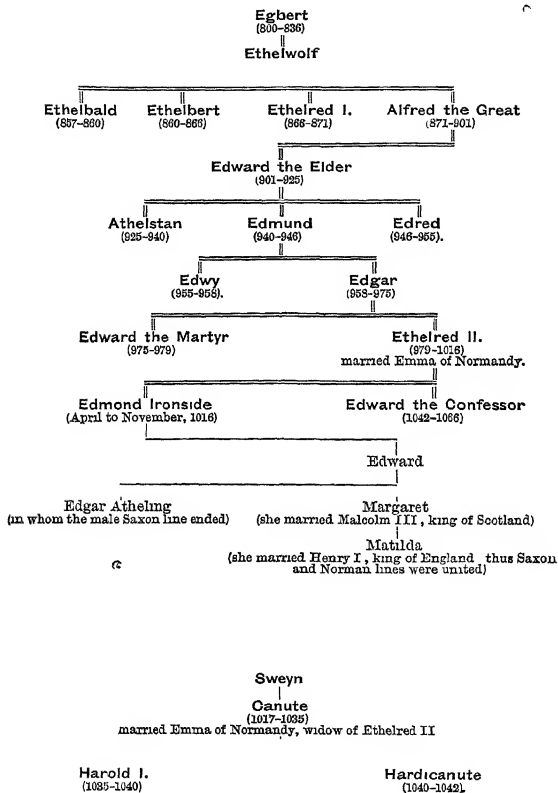
Sir Walter Raleigh.—**I.** Raleigh was born at Budleigh, Devonshire, 1552. After studying at Oxford, and serving with the Huguenots (or French Protestants) as a volunteer, and against the Spaniards in the Netherlands, he joined Humphrey Gilbert's expedition to America, 1578. In 1580, in command of a hundred foot-soldiers, he rendered good service in Ireland; came to England at Leicester's invitation; and speedily won the favour of the queen, by whom he was knighted, and made Captain of the Royal Guard, Lieutenant of Cornwall, and Vice-admiral of Devonshire. He spent much of the wealth bestowed on him by the queen's bounty in endeavours to plant colonies in North America. In 1588 he distinguished himself greatly by his services in command of the volunteer squadron against the Armada.

II. In 1589 he accompanied Drake on his expedition to Portugal,

and on his return to Ireland became the warm friend of the poet Spenser, author of the *Faerie Queene*, whom he introduced to Elizabeth. He married in 1592, and in 1595 he sailed to **South America**. On his return, 1596, he published an account of the voyage and of the country visited. In the same year he was one of the principal commanders of the expedition to Cadiz, and, after an expedition to the Azores in 1597, he became in 1600 governor of Jersey

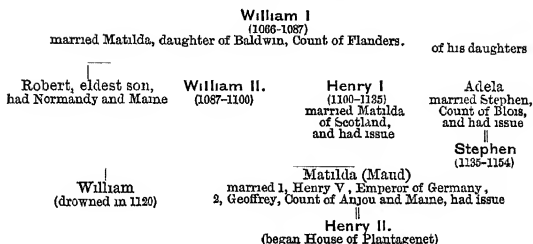
On the accession of James he was accused of treason, condemned, and imprisoned in the Tower, 1603. There he wrote his *History of the World*. Released in 1617 he commanded an expedition to Guiana in search of gold. A body of men, sent by Raleigh in search of the gold mine, were attacked by the Spaniards, and in revenge sacked the Spanish town of **St. Thomas**. Raleigh's eldest son was killed, and when he himself returned to England in 1618 he was executed to please the King of Spain.

*English Kings before the Conquest (except Harold II., son of Earl Godwin) and Union of Saxon and Norman lines.**

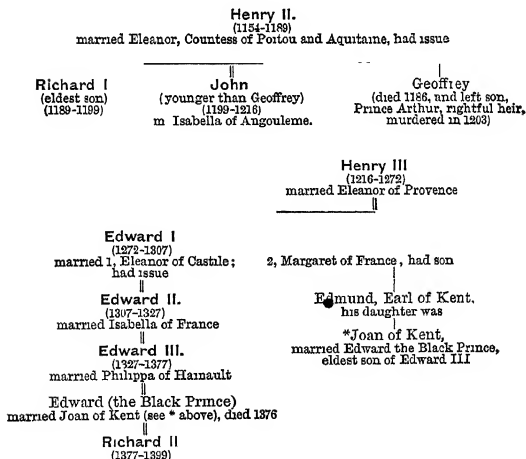


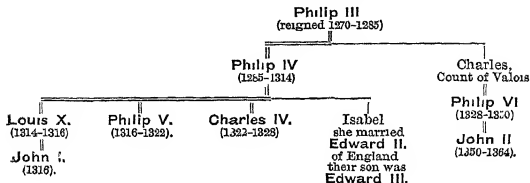
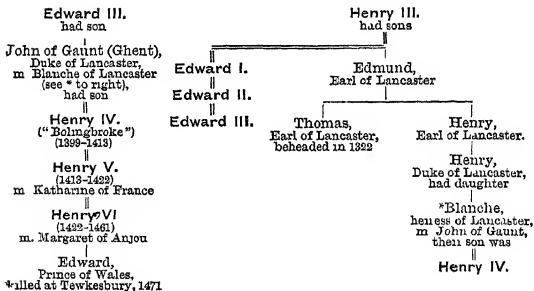
* In the Genealogical Tables the double lines show line of Kings.

Descendants of William I. down to Henry II.



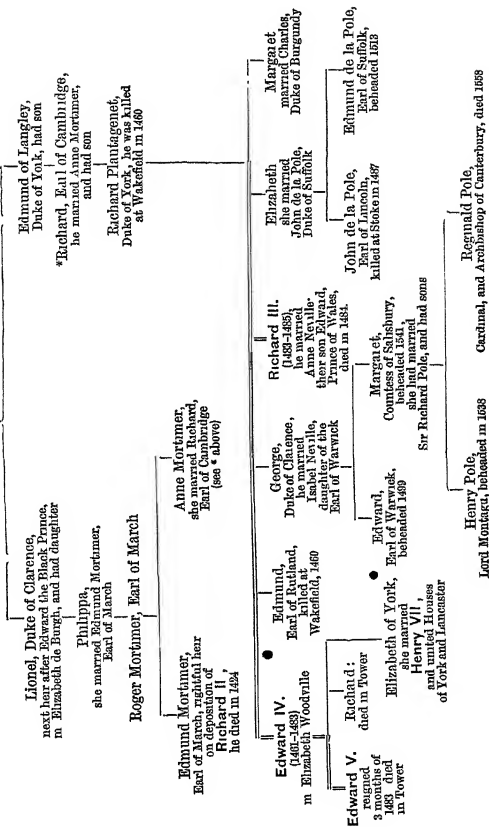
House of Plantagenet (1154-1485) to Richard II.

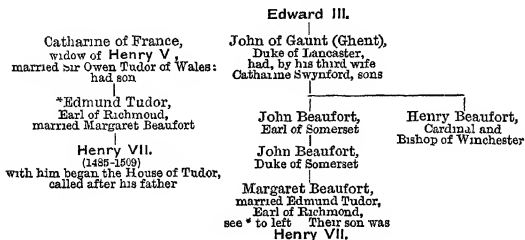
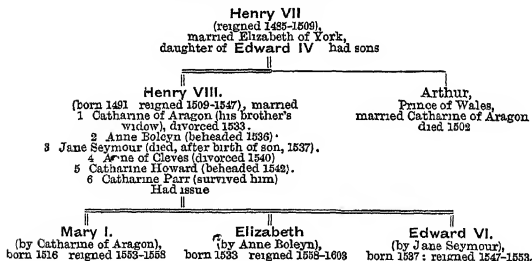


Claim of Edward III to the French crown.*House of Lancaster*

House of York.

Edward III.



*House of Lancaster (continued).**Genealogy of HENRY VII (Henry of Richmond).**House of Tudor (1485-1603).*

IMPORTANT DATES FROM 55 B.C. TO A.D. 1603.

I.—BRITAIN BEFORE THE COMING OF THE ENGLISH

Cæsar's first expedition to Britain,	- - - -	55 B.C.
Cæsar's second expedition to Britain,	- - - -	54
Beginning of Roman conquest of Britain,	- - - -	43 A.D.
Agricola's government of Britain,	- - - -	78-81
Hadrian's wall built between the Solway and Tyne,	- - - -	121
Severus restored wall of Hadrian,	- - - -	209
Roman troops withdrawn from Britain,	- - - -	410

II.—ENGLAND BEFORE THE ROMAN CONQUEST.

The English conquest of Britain,	- - - -	450-586
Landing of St. Augustine,	- - - -	597 A.D.
Egbert becomes king of all England,	- - - -	827
The Danish invasions begin,	- - - -	about 787
Alfred's reign,	- - - -	871-901
Danelagh established (Peace of Wedmore),	- - - -	878
Dunstan's power as minister,	- - - -	950-978
Danegeld first paid,	- - - -	991
Massacre of Danes,	- - - -	1002
Cnut (Canute) first Danish king,	- - - -	1016-1035
Edmund Ironside,	- - - -	1016
Edward the Confessor,	- - - -	1042-1066
Harold II.,	- - - -	1066
Battle of Hastings,	- - - -	Oct. 1066

III.—ENGLAND UNDER NORMAN KINGS.

William I. king,	- - - -	1066-1087
Domesday Book,	- - - -	1085-1086
William II. king,	- - - -	1087-1100
Anselm Archbishop of Canterbury,	- - - -	1093
Henry I. king,	- - - -	1100-1135
First charter,	- - - -	1100
Stephen king,	- - - -	1135-1154
Battle of the Standard,	- - - -	1138
Treaty of Wallingford,	- - - -	1153

IV.—ENGLAND UNDER PLANTAGENET KINGS.

Henry II. king,	- - - -	1154
Becket chancellor,	- - - -	1155
Becket Archbishop of Canterbury,	- - - -	1162
Constitutions of Clarendon,	- - - -	1164
Becket murdered,	- - - -	December, 1170
Henry II. in Ireland,	- - - -	1171
Circuit judges established,	- - - -	1176
Richard I. king,	- - - -	1189

	A D
John king, - - - - -	1199
Stephen Langton archbishop, - - - - -	1207
John's homage to Pope Innocent III, - - - - -	1213
Magna Charta, - - - - -	1215
Henry III king, - - - - -	1216
Provisions of Oxford, - - - - -	1258
Mise of Amiens, - - - - -	1264
Battle of Lewes, - - - - -	1264
Battle of Evesham, - - - - -	1265
Edward I king, - - - - -	1272
Conquest of Wales, - - - - -	1276-1284
Edward invades Scotland, - - - - -	1296
Confirmation of the charters, - - - - -	1297
Edward II. king, - - - - -	1307
Edward III. king, - - - - -	1327
French Hundred Years' War begins, - - - - -	1337
Battle of Sluys, - - - - -	1340
Battle of Crecy, - - - - -	1346
Capture of Calais, - - - - -	1347
The Black Death, - - - - -	1348-1349
Statutes of Labourers, - - - - -	1349, 1351
Statute of Treasons, - - - - -	1352
Battle of Poitiers, - - - - -	1356
Peace of Bretigny, - - - - -	1360
English language officially used, - - - - -	1362
Richard II. king, - - - - -	1377
The Peasants' revolt, - - - - -	1381

V.—ENGLAND UNDER HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK.

Henry IV. king, - - - - -	1399
Henry V king, - - - - -	1413
Lollard rising, - - - - -	1414
Battle of Agincourt, - - - - -	Oct. 1415
Treaty of Troyes, - - - - -	1420
Henry VI king, - - - - -	1422
Duke of Bedford regent in France, - - - - -	1422-1435
English defeated at Orleans, - - - - -	1429
"Maid of Orleans" burnt, - - - - -	1431
Normandy lost by English, - - - - -	1450
Loss of all the English conquests in France except Calais, by	1453
Jack Cade's (Yorkist) rising, - - - - -	1450
Wars of the Roses begin, - - - - -	1455
Edward IV. king, - - - - -	1461
Henry VI. prisoner in Tower, - - - - -	1466
Edward deposed, - - - - -	1470
Edward IV. wins Battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury, - - - - -	1471
Treaty of Pecquigny, - - - - -	1475
Edward V. king, and murdered. - - - - -	1483
Richard III king, - - - - -	1483
Battle of Bosworth, - - - - -	1485

VI—ENGLAND UNDER THE TUDORS

	A D
Henry VII king, - - - - -	1485
Star Chamber, - - - - -	1486
Lambert Simnel's revolt, - - - - -	1487
Perkin Warbeck's revolt, - - - - -	1492
America discovered, - - - - -	1492
Poynings' Law (Statute of Drogheda), - - - - -	1495
Princess Margaret marries James IV. of Scotland, -	1502
Henry VIII. king, - - - - -	1509
Wolsey in power, - - - - -	1513-1529
Battle of Flodden, - - - - -	1513
Fall of Wolsey, - - - - -	1529
Thomas Cromwell in power (The Terror), - - - - -	1533-1540
Papal supremacy rejected, - - - - -	1532
Cranmer archbishop, - - - - -	1533
Katharine of Aragon divorced, - - - - -	1533
Act of Supremacy, - - - - -	1534
Lesser monasteries suppressed, - - - - -	1536
Wales united with England, - - - - -	1536
Anne Boleyn executed, - - - - -	1536
The Pilgrimage of Grace, - - - - -	1536
Greater monasteries suppressed, - - - - -	1539
Statute of Six Articles, - - - - -	1539
Execution of Cromwell, - - - - -	1540
Edward VI king, - - - - -	1547
First Book of Common Prayer, - - - - -	1548
First Act of Uniformity, - - - - -	1549
Forty-two Articles of Religion, - - - - -	1551
Second Book of Common Prayer, - - - - -	1552
Mary I. queen, - - - - -	1553
Wyatt's insurrection, - - - - -	1554
Lady Jane Grey, &c, executed, - - - - -	1554
Mary I. marries Philip II., - - - - -	1554
The persecution, - - - - -	1556-1558
Calais recovered by French, - - - - -	1558
Elizabeth queen, - - - - -	1558
Act of Supremacy, - - - - -	1559
Court of High Commission founded, - - - - -	1559
Act of Uniformity, - - - - -	1559
Thirty-nine Articles of Religion, - - - - -	1563
English Reformation completed, - - - - -	1563
Mary Stuart flees to England, - - - - -	1568
Sir Francis Drake sails round world, - - - - -	1577-1580
Babington's conspiracy, - - - - -	1586
Mary Stuart executed, - - - - -	1587
Drake at Cadiz, - - - - -	1587
Spanish Armada, - - - - -	1588
East India Company's Charter, - - - - -	1600
Poor Law passed, - - - - -	1601

EXPLANATIONS OF THE MORE DIFFICULT WORDS AND PHRASES.

Britons and Romans.

Page

6. legion; in Caesar's time a body of six thousand foot-soldiers and from six to seven hundred cavalry
7. civilized, raised above the savage state, and improved in arts and learning
9. at bay, having turned on his pursuers, having turned to fight, there being no means of escape. When the hunted stag turns on the dogs it is said 'to bay' or stand 'at bay'.

Britain becomes England.

10. ancestors; forefathers.
11. mote-hill, assembly-hill, as *witenagemot* means 'assembly of the wise'.
12. submitted to its decisions, obeyed its orders
 comprised, took in

England before the Norman Conquest — I.

12. adjacent; lying next to or touching.
14. extolling; praising
 missionaries, men sent to preach the gospel to the heathen
 a general advance in civilization, the great body of the people came to know more, to obey the laws better, and show more respect for each other's rights
 venerable, having a rightful claim to very great respect
15. religious houses, abbeys, monasteries, &c
 deserted, those without means of living
 in exile; driven from his native land.
 Charles the Great; commonly known as Charlemagne

England before the Norman Conquest — II.

19. translate, to express in one language

Page

the exact meaning of what is already written in another

England before the Norman Conquest. — III.

21. regulating, laying down the laws for vengeance would come over the seas; her kinsmen and friends would cross over from Denmark and Norway, and punish those who did this wrong

The Norman Conquest — I.

23. a Norman in language and tastes, Edward spoke usually Norman-French, and his likes and dislikes were those of a Norman
24. realize, get a clear idea of
26. the sole male survivor, the only male of the line left alive.

The Norman Conquest — II

27. He claimed the throne of England on various grounds, he gave several reasons why he should be made King of England
 1. William declared that Edward the Confessor had promised that William should be made his successor
 2. He said that Harold, when he visited Normandy, had sworn to support his claim and to secure his election to the throne of England
 3. He asserted that Edward on his death-bed had informed Harold that he wished William to be his successor
 4. He claimed the throne also in right of his wife Matilda, who was a descendant of Alfred the Great, through a marriage of that king's daughter with Baldwin, Count of Flanders.
 disbanded for the harvest, the men had gone home to gather the harvest.

English armies before the Conquest consisted of the 'fyrd' or levy of armed freemen met to protect their homes. Thus done they returned to their ordinary duties. The king called them together, but they were only bound to serve for a short time. The gathering of the harvest was to such a body a matter of the first importance.

27. the issue of events, the result of the struggle

palisade, a fence composed of a row of strong posts stuck firmly in the ground

29. barricade, the palisade, wicker-work, felled trees, &c.

The Norman Conquest —III.

30. force a passage, make a way through

31. wielded with deadly effect, &c ; swung with such power that many Normans were slain

32. stubborn, unyielding

The Norman Conquest.—IV.

32. in effective resistance, &c., in fighting successfully against William.

wantonly unjust, wronging people from a mere love of cruelty

34. implements of tillage, farm tools, ploughs, &c

35. causeway, a raised and paved roadway

intrenchments, defences, fortifications

Norman England.—I.

36. to swear direct allegiance, to promise that they would always obey the king first, and be faithful to him as their over-lord.

38. energetic, active maintained, kept up

Norman England —II.

39. sees, districts that are governed by bishops.

42. supported the cause of, took the side of

Norman England —III

Page

42. His power was very widely spread, besides being King of England and Duke of Normandy, he had many other lands in France, conquered Ireland, and made alliances with several European monarchs

ready and retentive memory, he learned a thing quickly, and remembered it long.

43. assizes, the courts held in every county of England at regular intervals by at least one of the superior judges for the purpose of trying certain criminal and other cases by jury

44. privileges, special rights possessed by particular persons or classes tribunals, courts of justice.

Norman England —IV

45. absolved, set free from the duty of keeping his oath

forfeited, lost on account of what he had done.

47. suspended; forbade him for the time to act as archbishop

Norman England —V.

47. excommunicated; put out of the communion of the church.

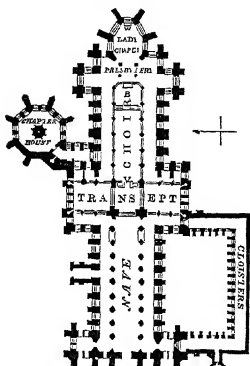
vespers, evening service, or prayers



48. cloisters, the covered walks that served as means of communication between different parts of the building

Page

48 transept, the portion of the church which projects on each side, so as to



form the short arms of the cross; the part between the nave and the chancel, having the throne taken from him

The Great Charter

52 lord paramount, the supreme lord of the lands

Rise of the House of Commons—I

55 diocese, the district or province ruled by a bishop

Rise of the House of Commons—II.

57 dispensation, a license to do something which is forbidden by the canons or church laws, or to omit doing something they command
valid, proper, lawful

Rise of the House of Commons.—III

60 constraining power; power to compel things to be done according to their wishes

64 became regular in their attendance; formed a part of every parliament

Rise of the House of Commons.—IV

Page

65 chronicle, a simple account of facts or events arranged in order of the time at which they took place

Edward the First.—I

69 administering justice, carrying out the laws, or putting them in force

Edward the First—II

71 patriotic, devoted to their native country

Edward the First.—III

76 issued, sent out of the mint, put into circulation

loyal attachment, faithful regard; or love for and fidelity to the monarch

Edward the First—IV

77 renounce his allegiance, declare himself no longer a subject of Edward.

80 guardianship, protectorship, highest power until the king should be restored

Edward the First—Edward the Second.

81 persisted, stuck to his point or resolve

missile weapons, weapons that can be hurled against an enemy from a distance, as arrows, stones, &c

82 involved in trouble, &c, having quarrelled with his nobles

The Rise of the People.

87 rioters, those who were making the disturbance

had designs on, &c, intended to kill the king.

John Wyclaf

88 heresy, holding opinions contrary to those sanctioned by the church

89 itinerant preachers; men who went from place to place preaching to the people

Geoffrey Chaucer—I.

91 ransom, the price paid to deliver a person from captivity or slavery
commissioner; a person intrusted by

the rulers with the management of some piece of business

- 91 comptroller, examiner of the accounts of those who collected the taxes.

Geoffrey Chaucer — II.

- 95 impressive deportment, striking mode of behaviour, dignified manners

The Hundred Years' War — I.

- 97 under the influence of the Duke of Lancaster, the Duke of Lancaster was the cause of the bad government
98. official duties, doing the work which they as judges had to do

The Hundred Years' War — II.

- 102 made dreadful havoc, killed or wounded a very great number of them

The Hundred Years' War — III

- 104 was intercepted, the enemy placed themselves between him and Bordeaux to which he was returning
detached for the purpose, separated from the main body of the English and sent to make this attack
insurrection of French peasants, a rising of a number of French countrymen against their rulers.

- 105 alienated, made his subjects dislike him

The Hundred Years' War — IV

- 106 vastly superior force, a very much larger force
108 bill, a broad hook-shaped blade, with a short pike behind and one at the top, fixed to a long handle

109. bay; the laurel-tree. In olden times a garland or crown of laurel was the reward of excellence or victory

The Hundred Years' War. — V.

- 109 gave a complete triumph to the king; granted him all that he had fought for.

The Hundred Years' War — VI

- Page
113 consecrated sword, a sword that had been already laid as an offering on the altar, and so set apart or made holy
to natural powers of body and to shrewdness of mind, to strength and intelligence
114 victorious white banner; the white flag she had carried in the numerous battles she had won

The Fight for the Crown. — I.

- 116 with intervals, reckoning the periods of peace that came in the course of these long wars

The Fight for the Crown. — II

120. borderers, men of the northern counties, or the counties that bordered on Scotland

The Fight for the Crown — III.

- 123 French auxiliaries, French soldiers who had come to help him to gain the throne
the old nobility had been almost swept away, nearly all the members of the ancient noble families had been killed

The Fight for the Crown — IV.

- 125 Protector of England, guardian or ruler of the country for the young king to resist the will of the usurper, to oppose Richard
127 the levying of taxes on goods imported into England, the exacting the payment of customs-duties Customs-duty is the tax paid on goods brought from foreign countries to be consumed in this.

The Tudor Sovereigns

130. maritime affairs, matters connected with shipping
comparatively small, there were very few of the middle class at that time in comparison to the great number there are now
131 Excessive and unlawful, &c; men were punished too heavily, and often contrary to law

Henry the Eighth—I

Page

- 132 regarding the validity of the marriage, about whether the marriage could be rightfully set aside or not
 133 to gratify his desires, to get, or to do what he himself wished

Henry the Eighth—II.

- 136 insight, power to grasp the real meaning and relations of circumstances and events
 138 awkward position, a position in which it was difficult to know what to do

Henry the Eighth—III

- 139 chafed; annoyed, fretted—had your temper tried
 140 disappointment, things wished for and expected did not happen, and things not wished for and unexpected took place
 their flocks, the people or lanty Those who in religious matters were under the care of the clergy, as sheep are under the care of a shepherd

Henry the Eighth.—IV.

- 143 to consecrate bishops, to perform the ceremony prescribed by the church when bishops are appointed
 144 deprivation of office; his bishopric was taken from him

Henry the Eighth—V

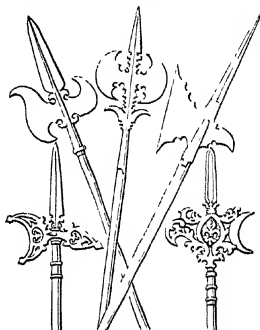
- 145 to refuse his signature, he refused to write his name after the statement To have written his name would have meant to others that he believed the statement to be correct.
 personage, a man or woman of high rank or distinction
 147 rising lawyer, a lawyer who is gaining fame and getting a large practice

Henry the Eighth.—VI

- 148 in succession, first to one and then to the next, and so on
 149 flattering freedom, an absence of stiffness and of ceremony which showed how high an opinion he held of More wicket, a small gate, especially a

Page

- small door forming part of a larger one
 149 triumphed over, got the better of, conquered
 150 halberts, old-fashioned weapons that might be used as spears or as battle-



axes The heads were of various shapes and the shafts were usually about six feet long

Henry the Eighth—VII

- 151 arbitrary and utterly unscrupulous, self-willed and without any care as to whether a thing were right or wrong, just or unjust
 152 became by act of parliament vested in the king, an act of parliament made the king the owner of the property of the monasteries
 153 Holbein, Hans Holbein the younger, one of the greatest of portrait painters, born at Augsburg, 1497, died in London, 1543

End of Henry the Eighth, &c.

- 157 revived, put in force again

Queen Elizabeth.—I

- 160 submissive, obedient, yielding.

Queen Elizabeth—II

- 163 framing, drawing up

165 blocked, shut up, closed so that a ship could not sail through it

Queen Elizabeth.—III.

165. foreign affairs, the relations between England and other countries

166 supreme, possessed of greater power than any other

in open conflict, actually fighting

167 infamous massacre, shameful wholesale murder

Queen Elizabeth.—IV

167 allegiance, the fidelity and obedience of a subject to a ruler

169. an extensive and alarming plot, a plot in which many took part, and which was very dangerous to the country

170 members of the queen's household; servants in attendance on the queen

Queen Elizabeth.—V.

170 faith and practice, beliefs and forms of service

171 suspended from his office, ordered for the time not to do his duties as archbishop

Queen Elizabeth.—VI

175 fringe of deadly rocks; outer edge of rocks where many ships had been wrecked

Queen Elizabeth.—VII.

177. superstition; an unreasonable fear of the unknown or mysterious

178 mummers and maskers, people who in a mask or disguise are engaged in creating diversion or amusement
station of the wearer, the person's dress showed his position in life

179 tapestries, hangings of wool or silk adorned with figures or landscapes, much used for covering the walls and furniture of rooms

Queen Elizabeth.—VIII

180 adventurous, undertaking tasks that needed great daring.

183 determined expression, the look of a man who, when once he had made up

Page

his mind to do a thing, would not easily be moved from his purpose

Queen Elizabeth.—IX.

185 to greet, to welcome

the survivors, &c; those who remained alive of the men and women sent out to colonize Virginia

Queen Elizabeth.—X.

188 the full approval, most of the members of the English parliament thought it right that Mary Queen of Scots should be executed

unique occurrence; there is no other case of it in European history

Queen Elizabeth.—XI.

191 queen-consort, wife of the reigning king

192 were involved in this conspiracy took part in this plot to bring about a marriage between Mary and Norfolk.

Queen Elizabeth.—XII

194 hapless; unfortunate.

195 galleons, huge, round-stemmed, clumsy vessels, very strong, and built up at stem and stern like castles

daring assailants, brave men who attacked them fearlessly



196 crescent, shaped

like the new moon

zealous patriotisn,

passionate love for their native country.

Queen Elizabeth.—XIII

196 halberdiers; men armed with halberts (see page 150); pikemen, men armed with the pike, a weapon consisting of a long wooden shaft and a flat-pointed steel head

199 efficiency, fitness to do the work required from it

Queen Elizabeth.—XIV.

201 had received the surrender, &c., had captured another big Spanish vessel

- 201 roughly handled, knocked about,
very much injured
202 assailed by a new device, a new
mode of attacking him was to be em-
ployed
203 shattered hulls, ships that had been
much injured in the battle and the
storm
chariot, a four-wheeled state car-
riage having only one seat

The Conquest of Ireland.

- 205 to enlist adventurers, to hire English
knights and soldiers to help him to get
back his kingdom
206. pacifying the natives, quieting the
people of Ireland, restoring peace and
order

The Conquest of Ireland (continued)

- 208 only agreed in oppressing the Irish
peasantry, both English nobles and
Irish chiefs plundered the poor country-
people
209 he and the invaders; the Earl of
Tyrone and the Spaniards

Page

- 209 made complete submission, yielded
entirely, accepted the Queen's terms,
threw himself on the Queen's mercy

Sir Walter Raleigh

- 210 noble specimen, &c, a fine example
of grand English prose
212 determined look; the look of a man
with a strong will, a look of resolve
who made a vain attempt, &c; his
attempt to found a colony in N Amer-
ica failed.
213 The settlers were unable to contend
with the Indians, so many colonists
were killed by the attacks of the Indians
that the survivors returned home

Sir W Raleigh (continued).

- 214 aroused by stories, &c He had been
led to go on this expedition by the
wonderful stories he had heard regard-
ing the wealth of those regions
215 The fleet was roughly treated by
storms, storms did great injury to the
fleet

